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Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch's Discovery

Perhaps there is some excuse for the prevalence of this wrong impression, for Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch, in his *Art on Pelmanism*, admits that he had made the mistake so many others make of supposing that the instruction aimed only at training the memory. He says: "That is the Pelman System) started with this, for its main purpose seems pretty clear to an inquirer who follows through these booklets its reasoned account of itself. But to the inquirer it is even more obvious that Pelmanism, making sure of its ground and feeling its strength, is pushing its claims a great deal further. Indeed, if we will admit Pelmanism to be a system (1) scientifically based on its principles, and (2) working successfully—not to say working wonders—in practice, there is no reason at all why it should stop at training the memory. Every reason, rather, why it should go on to assert itself over the whole field of mental training, and yet further, to offer its help in the formation of character."

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Will as dependent on thought and feeling.
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Auto-suggestion—Use in education and business.
Diagram of mind-wandering.
External and internal conditions of concentration.
Mental powers—Their order of development.
Imagination—Method of training.
Importance of analogies.
How to originate ideas.
Brain fag.
The hygiene of study.
Self-expression develops ability.

The art of reasoning.

How different opinions arise.

The influence of mind on mind.

Courage—The primary virtue.

Studies in self-knowledge.

Not one of these headings refers exclusively to memory, although all of them involve that faculty. Pelmanism develops the individual faculties so that they will work in unison. It develops a memory that is infallible—but to ask whether Pelmanism is a memory course is like asking whether a five-pound note is worth fifteen shillings. The answer in either case is the same: "Emphatically, yes; and a very great deal besides."

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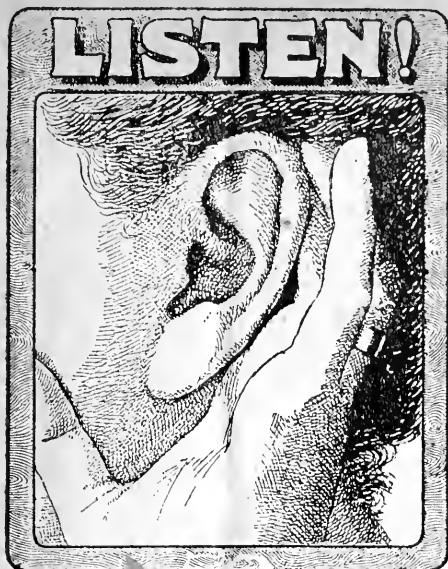
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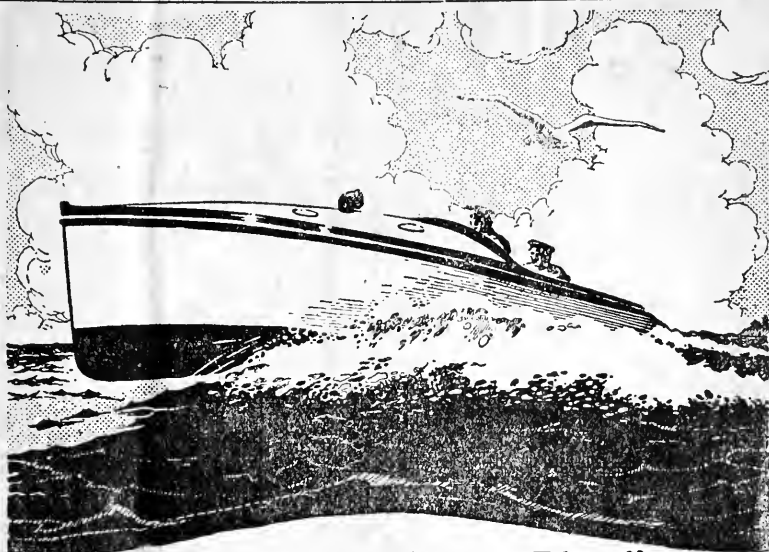
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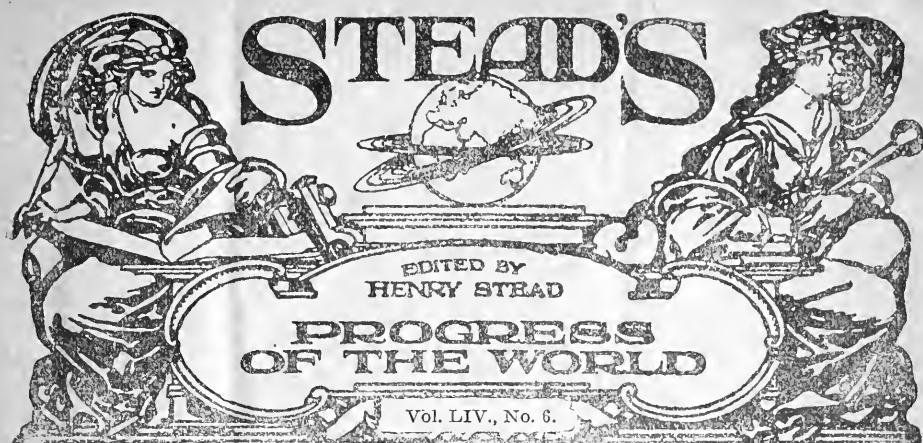
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What Will the Poles Do?

The Poles have apparently not yet come to any decision concerning their attitude towards Russia. According to some reports they will be satisfied with driving the Red Guards beyond the Curzon line, according to others they declare that Poland can only be safe if the Russians are completely defeated, and that therefore they must advance into Russia and crush the Red Armies which are hastening against them. The situation has been further complicated by the arrival in Poland of General Makhroff, Wrangel's lieutenant. He naturally is urging the Poles to invade Russia as, unless such a diversion be created, Trotsky will be able to concentrate his forces against Wrangel, whose fate would then be sealed. The Poles, if they are wise, will halt on the frontier the Allies have proposed as the dividing line between Russia and Poland. By so doing they can count on Allied support, which means money and food and munitions, if not soldiers. If they carry the war into Russia they cannot expect that assistance. England, at any rate, whilst anxious to see a strong

Poland established, would not now assist the Poles to aggrandise themselves at the expense of Russia. The Polish leaders must be fully aware of this, and we may assume that sane counsels will prevail, and that, once Poland proper is cleared of invaders, peace with Russia will be sought. If they hesitate too long they will be too late to prevent another invasion of their country by the Russians.

Lithuania.

The difficulties between Poland and Lithuania are now said to have been settled, although trouble is likely to continue. We know little about the matter, and the cables are contradictory. The fact that the Lithuanians have an army and talk about their frontier, indicates that a State of Lithuania is in existence, but that is about all the information we have. Lithuania was at one time a powerful State, and when joined with Poland it became part of that Greater Poland—the re-establishment of which the Poles still dream of—it was a Lithuania prince who sat on the Polish throne. The circumstances were somewhat

similar to those which united England and Scotland, with a Scot as sovereign. The Poles think that, instead of setting up a separate State, the Lithuanians ought to throw in their lot with Poland, as in the old days. The Lithuanians, however, object. They have formed a republic of their own, and appear to have arrived at an understanding with Russia, but no particulars are available as to the frontiers of the new State or its area.

A Lettish Republic.

According to ethnological maps the Lithuanians inhabit the districts of Kovno, Vilna, Sulwalki, and Grodno. Sulwalki was a part of Russian Poland, and Kovno lies along the northern frontier of East Prussia. They also mingle with the Letts in Courland and Livonia. The bone of contention with the Poles will be Sulwalki and Grodno, the former granted Poland by the Allies, the latter coveted by the Poles. During the war Courland set itself up as a Grand Duchy, with the Kaiser as Grand Duke, but, later, with parts of Livonia and of Kovno, it became the Lettish republic of Latvia. The Letts call themselves Latvians, by the way, hence the name of their republic. In an article by General von der Goltz, quoted some months ago in *STEAD'S*, it was asserted that the Letts were incapable of self-government, and that the Balts were the ruling class. The English, however, had strongly supported the Letts, and were anxious to begin trading with them, in order to get the flax, which is the chief product of the country. Apparently, however, British support was withdrawn after the collapse of Yudenitch, and we find the Government of Latvia concluding peace with Germany in May last.

The Baltic Provinces.

Unfortunately, there is no mention of frontiers in this treaty, which is concerned only with trade, transit, finance and the destination of the war material left by von der Goltz. We do not know, therefore, how far south Latvia runs, but it probably touches the Prussian frontier, thus cutting

Lithuania off from the sea. Further north is the Republic of Esthonia, with which Russia concluded a liberal peace early this year. That treaty defines the Russo-Esthonia frontier, which runs through Lake Peipus, but does not mention the boundary between Esthonia and Latvia. The three new Republics between them include the whole of what used to be known as the Baltic Provinces. They lie between Russia and the important ports of Reval, Riga and Libau, which were being more and more used by Russian merchants owing to their being much less severely ice-bound in winter than Petrograd and Helsingfors. Although Russian produce passed through them, and goods for Russia went that way, Germans were in control of the business in much the same way as were Italians of the Austrian trade at Trieste. That these little self-governing Republics now established along the Baltic must pass under the control of Russia or Germany seems inevitable. The question is, which?

That Indemnity!

The failure of the Spa Conference to definitely fix the amount of reparation Germany was to pay makes it impossible for that country to put its finances in order. The position is still that the more the Germans make the more they will be called on to hand over to the Allies. Under these circumstances it is surprising that German industry languishes, and that German workers see no use in exerting themselves for the sole benefit of foreign taskmasters? Doubts are now being freely expressed whether Germany will in the end pay anything at all, and those who advocated that Great Britain might have generously foregone her share of the indemnity at the very beginning now deplore the fact that she will get neither the kudos of such action or the money she demanded in order that Lloyd George might make good his election pledge to "make Germany pay." M. Poincare, writing in the *Temps*, recently asks several questions which he does not attempt to answer, as to what the Allies could

do to force Germany to pay. More and more people are realising the obvious—which I pointed out to my readers many months ago—that we cannot continue to hold Germany down—by insisting on the surrender of great quantities of coal, by refusing to grant her credits to get raw materials, by shutting her goods out of our markets, and the like—and at the same time expect huge indemnities. The present policy of refusing to fix the amount of the payment to be made gives Germany an interest in remaining poor, makes her apathetic, and must lead to disaster.

German Emigrants.

The Allies are exceedingly anxious to charge themselves with the development of Russia, but their policy towards Germany will certainly defeat that object. The position is clear enough. Germany has lost 80 per cent. of the iron ore and 45 per cent. of the coal on which her entire industrial edifice was built. She has lost the precious potash monopoly to France. Some of her best agricultural districts are already lost, others may go if the plebiscites are adverse. It is estimated that she will lose 21.7 per cent. of her rye crop, and 23 per cent. of her potatoes, for instance. Including Alsace-Lorrainers, Germany will lose some 9,000,000 population by the cession of territory. It is claimed that half of these are Germans. Of the remaining 58,000,000 people, a conservative estimate is that 10,000,000 will have to leave Germany or starve. Some experts place the number as high as 20,000,000. Where are they to go to? The United States will not allow them to migrate there. Australia will not have them. Canada has shown signs of greater reasonableness, but they cannot go there at present. They can only migrate to South America or to Russia. Already the migration to Russia is under weigh.

A New Balance of Power.

Russia has immense resources, and is sparsely populated. With inefficient methods and poor tools she has yet produced 51 per cent. of the world's

rye, 25 per cent. of its oats, 33 per cent. of its barley, 22 per cent. of its wheat. With better cultivation she could easily double her crops and greatly improve them. Her flocks of sheep and herds of cattle are capable of indefinite expansion. Immense deposits of minerals await the miner whilst the oil resources of the country have only been tapped in one district. The Bolsheviks welcome experts, and put no obstacle in the way of the German immigrant. The Allies, by their blockade and their support of the anti-Bolsheviks have hardly endeared themselves to the Russians who would now welcome Germans rather than Frenchmen or Englishmen in their midst. Russia, with Germans behind her industries and in charge of her agricultural development, will be a mighty force in the markets of the world. It may well be that the wheat farmer of Australia may yet regret the policy which will, in time, result in the flooding of world markets with Russian grain. Whilst it may hurt him, though, it will be of much benefit to the teeming millions of Europe. By blocking German migration and forcing it towards Russia, the Allies are helping to establish a new balance of power in Europe, which, before very long, will render all their present map-making futile.

The Cutting Up of Turkey.

Judging from the debates in the French Parliament, there is a feeling that, in the carving up of Turkey, Great Britain kept the best bits for herself—Egypt, Cyprus, Constantinople, Mesopotamia. Even Mosul, which was originally to have gone to France, in some extraordinary manner fell into John Bull's hands. Only at the last moment did France secure even a small share of the oil from the Euphrates valley. Doubts are expressed as to the ability of Greece to hold the great areas which have been handed over to her. It is pointed out that Greeks predominate neither in Thrace nor in the Smyrna district, and it is admitted that the giving of these lands to Greece has aroused more resentment in Turkey

and throughout Moslem lands than any of the other annexations. There seems to be little doubt that the real Government of Turkey is in the hands of Mustapha Kemal, whose headquarters are at Sivas. The Sultan and his Ministry, entirely under the thumb of the Allied forces in Constantinople, may sign any number of "binding" treaties, but so far as the Turks themselves are concerned, these are mere scraps of paper, of which they take not the slightest notice. It is clear enough now that there remains no chance of a peaceful settlement by consent. What the various Allies have taken they will have to hold by force. This means heavy burdens on the taxpayers of England, France and Greece. One wonders whether the oil of Mosul will be worth the £30,000,000 or so Britain will have to spend on holding Mesopotamia in order to get it? Greece's resources will be strained to the uttermost to maintain a large army in Smyrna and another in Thrace. Her leaders must be fully aware of the fact that neither Turks nor Bulgars will allow any opportunity to pass of regaining possession of their lost territories. The first real rift which showed in the Allied lute would be the signal of a rising in Thrace, which would have Bulgarian and Turkish support. Grecian finances are not likely to be able to stand the strain without help from France and England.

Pound of Flesh Refused!

In the midst of this orgy of grab which the Allies have started, it is pleasing to find one of them, at any rate, able to forego its pound of flesh. In one of the sinister secret treaties, which made the conclusion of a Wilsonian peace impossible, Albania was practically handed over to Italy. She could have it if she liked. At first she did like, and after the manner of France and England proceeded to take what had been promised her. Saner counsels, however, prevailed, and when Giolitti became Prime Minister he assured the Albanians that Italy had no intention of annexing their country, and retained possession of Avlona only

to make sure that no other Power got it. The Italian Government, he said, would prefer the Albanians to occupy the town, but it feared that, should a strong naval Power covet it, the Albanians would not be able to prevent it seizing the port. Italy could never tolerate any other great Power at Avlona, which dominates the entrance to the Adriatic. Until the Albanians were strong enough to hold the place against a formidable naval force, the Italians proposed to remain there themselves. Altogether, Giolitti adopted a most conciliatory tone, and set an example other Prime Ministers might well follow. The Italians are showing a much more reasonable spirit in their dealings with their former enemies than are any of their Allies. How far this is due to the strong action of the workers it is difficult to say. No doubt Italian statesmen realise that the sooner Germany and Austria get on their feet again the better for Italy and the world in general, therefore they are all for assisting them to rise.

Labour's Power.

The General Federation of Labour and the Socialist Party in Italy not only protested vehemently against the Italian occupation of Albania, but, by refusing to handle supplies and by even persuading soldiers destined for Avlona to mutiny, were able to bring immense pressure to bear on the Government. No doubt the knowledge that the workers were determined to prevent Italian interference in Albania had a great deal to do with Giolitti's definite announcement that all idea of a protectorate over the country had been abandoned. In a declaration made by the Labour Federation it asked the proletariat of Italy "to express firmly and resolutely in the form of demonstrations, and by other means, their decided determination to prevent any new wars being started," and went on to say that "the proletariat does not again intend to be helplessly dragged to the slaughter." If the workers in every country were determined and were properly organised for the purpose they could prevent any Govern-

ment from embarking on war. The lamentable failure of the League of Nations leaves organised Labour the only force which can stop wars. The workers provide the cannon fodder. If they object to doing so any longer, Governments and financiers and armament firms will have to settle their differences by other means than the sword.

British Miners' Reasonable Demand.

A strike of the coal miners of Great Britain seems imminent. Apparently the Government would be willing to grant increased wages, but refuses to agree to the miners' demands that such increases shall not at once be passed on to the public by putting up the cost of coal. The miners insist, and with reason, that the increase of wages granted already cannot possibly justify the huge price at present charged for coal. They go so far as to demand that this price shall be cut down by 14s a ton—by more, that is, than it used to be sold at before the war! Labour leaders are divided on the question, most of them holding that the miners should not insist on controlling the price of coal, but should rest satisfied with insisting on higher wages to meet the increased cost of living. All the same, the miners, by insisting upon the increases not being passed on, are acting in the interests of the whole community. If the strike does come it will be a bitter struggle, which will involve every industry in Great Britain, and will cripple her shipping.

The Hunger-Striking Lord Mayor.

The Irish situation gets no better. Attention is at present concentrated on Alderman M'Sweeney, Lord Mayor of Cork, who is hunger striking in a London prison. The Government refuses to free him, taking up the attitude that he is guilty of a crime, and that his liberation would encourage further crime in Ireland. Most people regard him as guilty of a political offence, not of a felonious one, and therefore demand his release. Political offenders have always been on a quite different footing to criminals, and if the Government considered Mr.

M'Sweeney guilty of a political crime only it would certainly let him out. It holds him guilty of high treason, the penalty of which is death. In the opinion of the British Government, then, the Sinn Féin activities in Ireland can no longer be regarded as attempts to secure self-government, but must be looked on as acts of rebellion. The death of Mr. M'Sweeney will mark the definite parting of the ways. With the failure to arrive at any settlement on the lines of Dominion Home Rule, will begin an era of coercion in Ireland which will have terrible results. It is to be hoped that, even at this late hour, some solution of the problem will yet be found.

Australia's Defence Policy.

Mr. Hughes has at last indicated the general lines of the Commonwealth defence policy. Details are to follow later. £3,959,000 is to be spent on the navy, £3,250,000 on the army, and £600,000 on the air force—£7,809,000 altogether. During the last five years the expenditure, apart from war expenditure, on army and navy, averaged £1,400,000 and £1,500,000 respectively. Last year the two together cost just over £3,000,000. Now that we have won the war, made the world safe for democracy, destroyed the German fleet, and reduced her army to impotence, we are to find almost £5,000,000 more for defence than was deemed necessary when the German menace stalked abroad! The victory in Europe has riveted the bonds of conscription more firmly on the necks of every Allied nation, has vastly increased their expenditure on armaments, and made them keep a greater number of soldiers under arms than ever before. Only in Germany has conscription been abandoned. It is apparently to be introduced here definitely. We already had an insidious sort of conscription of youths, which, as the years passed, would have effected the entire nation. Had the Kitchener scheme been started ten years earlier, it is safe to say there would have been no conscription referendum. An Order-in-Council would have sent our conscripts to France. I

must leave discussion of the military proposals until more definite information is given; but meantime, it is gratifying to find that the Prime Minister is fully awake to the fact that Australia must be defended on the water, and not on the land. That being so, it is unfortunate that, of the total sum to be set aside for defence, more is not going to the navy. Cost, after all, controls the size of navy and army, but Australia, by adopting a certain foreign policy has created a difficult situation. She is, indeed, faced with the alternative of keeping this policy, and providing means of defending herself against those against whom it is directed, or of abandoning the policy, and with it, the need for special defensive measures.

Another £5,000,000 Wanted.

The Jellicoe scheme called for an expenditure of £4,000,000 a year to begin with, but it provided for capital ships. Mr. Hughes proposes to spend almost £4,000,000 on the navy (£710,000 on transport), but says we must be satisfied with cruisers and small craft. He leaves over the formulation of a definite naval policy until after the Imperial Defence Council meets next year. It is to draw up a scheme, in which Australia is to co-operate. The war has demonstrated the need for capital ships; a mosquito fleet of destroyers and submarines would be of little use to Australia, for a hostile fleet would destroy their bases one after another. Pour oil on the tank, so to speak, and the mosquitoes would die. Mr. Hughes' announcement makes it possible for us to get some idea of what amount of money the Treasurer will have to find to meet expenditure during the coming year. Interest on loans will be about £20,000,000. Defence probably £8,000,000. Old age pensions, some £4,000,000. Baby bonus, £650,000. Contributions to the States, £6,500,000. These main items total £38,650,000. The departments need at least £3,000,000, and the Postmaster wants £5,500,000. Last year, the revenue was just under £44,000,000, and it was all needed. We will obviously have to find at least £5,000,000 more this year. There is

not going to be any relief from "war taxation." Why not go after the profiteers; follow the example of the Italian Government, and confiscate all war profits?

The Report on New Guinea.

The report of the Royal Commissioners appointed by the Federal Government to investigate conditions in German New Guinea, and make recommendations for its future Government, was recently issued. So few copies were made available however, that hardly anyone has read it. It consists of a majority and minority report, the first signed by Mr. Atlee Hunt and Mr. Lucas, the second by Judge Murray. Mr. Hunt is the permanent head of the Home and Territories Department. Mr. Lucas has a high position in the firm of Burns, Philp and Co., Judge Murray is Lieut.-Governor of Papua. Mr. Hunt is a very able Government Official whose experience is however confined to the management of his department in Australia. Mr. Lucas' firm is deeply interested in the South Seas' Trade. Judge Murray has had an experience the other Commissioners altogether lack. He has, as Lieut.-Governor of Papua for 12 years, had to manage a great tropical dependency, to meet and overcome problems of which the other two know nothing, and to rule over and maintain order amongst a great native population. He has followed in the footsteps of British Empire builders in the South Seas, and has worthily carried on their great traditions. He has been able to evolve a sound economic policy, to lift the natives to a higher degree of civilisation. He has achieved great results without bloodshed, and has made the word of an Australian respected throughout the entire country.

Spoils to the Victor.

He recommended that Papua and German New Guinea should be administered as one territory. The reasons he gave for this were sound and convincing. One would have imagined that, in view of the experience of the three Commissioners, his recommendation would have carried greater

weight than that of the other two, who advised that an entirely new administration be set up for the territories we have taken from Germany. That is not the case however, for the New Guinea Bill now before Parliament keeps the territory quite distinct from Papua, under a special administrator. It sets up, in fact, an entirely new administration. This Bill will certainly become law, as it is a Government proposal, and Mr. Hughes has an obedient majority. One wonders whether the recommendations of the majority report concerning German property, and the treatment of German residents will also be adopted. One of the worst features of the many bad ones in the Peace Treaty is the manner in which private property in conquered territories is treated. Private property has hitherto been respected. The Germans did not grab the private possessions of Frenchmen living in Alsace-Lorraine in 1871. They even paid for the railways they took over, but the Allies, who fought for everything that was best in the world, did not hesitate to seize private property in the areas they annexed. "Spoils to the victor," was the principle they adopted, thus creating a precedent which they may yet deeply rue. Art. 122 of the Peace Treaty deals with the German Colonies. It says: "The Government exercising authority over such territories may make such provisions as it thinks fit with reference to the repatriation from them of German nationals, and to the conditions upon which German subjects of European origin shall or shall not be allowed to reside, hold property, trade or exercise a profession in them."

New Zealand's Bad Example.

New Zealand has set an example in Samoa which Australia is sure to follow. The property of Germans in Samoa has been sold to the highest bidder, and the unfortunate owner has in most cases been bundled back to Germany with a miserable pittance, supposed to be enough to pay his expenses to Europe. This is, of course,

spoliation, but the man despoiled is told by the confiscating Government that he can look to bankrupt Germany for compensation! Burns Philp and Co. are naturally anxious to get valuable plantations in the Pacific Islands and we find that, directly or indirectly, they bought in all the Samoan estates which the New Zealand Government had confiscated. It seems pretty obvious that they would in like manner acquire the exceedingly valuable plantations and estates which the Commonwealth Government intends to take from those who carved them out of the bush. Judge Murray suggests that it is the State and not private individuals that should benefit from the spoliation. Mr. Hunt and Mr. Lucas disagree, and urge that these estates should be thrown open to private enterprise. In other words, that Burns Philp and Co. should be allowed to secure them. This great firm has come into the German inheritance in the Pacific. The disappearance of German steamers from the Southern Seas has removed all competition, and left the Company a dictator of freights and fares. It is at any rate reasonable to suggest that spoils should go to the State that has made spoliation possible, not to some private person. Individual soldiers are no longer allowed to loot wholesale, as they used to do in the middle ages. Loot now-a-days belongs to the State. Of course, Australia is supposed to hold German New Guinea under a mandate for the League of Nations, but, as was pointed out recently in the French Parliament, the Pacific Colonies are annexed irrevocably by the British Empire and Japan, whereas the mandates under which France holds the German Colonies in Africa do not permit of annexation. The French Government wishes that to be altered, and no doubt will succeed in so doing. It is indeed a pity that the advice of the man, whose splendid administration of Papua was Mr. Hughes' trump card at Paris when playing for German New Guinea, should be altogether ignored.

Still More Paper Money.

The Federal Treasurer has just brought in a Bill to amend the Commonwealth Bank Act to which reference is made in our Financial Notes. It is not clear what the object of the Government is in insisting that every bank, except the Commonwealth Bank, must hold in the form of Australian notes not less than 20 per cent. of its deposits at call or less than six months' notice, and 10 per cent. of its longer notice deposits. Possibly it is to make certain that the banks do not put into circulation the great number of notes they have at present in their possession. Possibly it is to help the Commonwealth Bank. The people as a whole are not troubled at all about the reasons which actuate the Government, they are only concerned with the results of its action. It seems only too likely that the new Bill will give the Government an excuse for issuing still more paper money. It has been shown in every country in the world that the cost of living goes up when the amount of paper money is increased, due to the fact that the purchasing power of the notes diminishes. If, then, the Commonwealth issues more notes instead of attempting to withdraw them, the cost of living is bound to go up still further. In replying to criticisms, Sir Joseph Cook objected to Savings Bank deposits being regarded as a liability, and also to the assertion "that the promise to pay on demand in gold written on the Australian notes was an absolute falsehood." It is difficult to follow him in this. The deposits in the Savings Bank ought surely to be covered; if not, what happens if there came a run on the bank? As for the promise to pay, let anyone take a few pound notes to the Treasury and see what happens! Unless you can produce your passport and your steamer ticket you certainly will get no gold. Even if you can prove you are a bona fide traveller, you can only get £50 in sovereigns. Actually the Australian notes to all intents and purposes are as inconvertible as the Bradbury currency notes of Great Britain.

NEW ZEALAND NOTES.

New Zealand wool producers are anxious that prosperity may return quickly to Europe, including Germany. They have not attained the height of self-sacrificing righteousness of the Hughes Government in Australia, which prefers to injure Australian growers and exporters through the embargo rather than have any truck with Germans. A conference at Wellington, representing the wool interests of the whole Dominion, passed the following resolution:—

That a request be sent to the Imperial Government to lend all possible assistance in enabling all woollen mills on the continent of Europe to increase their output, and at the same time ask whether there is any way in which the New Zealand Government can be of assistance in this.

Mr. George Black, of Dalgety and Co., said the great need of the time was a stimulation of manufacture. We are faced with the extraordinary position of an apparently insatiable demand for the finished article, a production of woollen goods below normal, and behind these a steadily increasing quantity of the raw material. Before the war the woollen mills of the world, working full time, could absorb 5,000,000 bales a year. Now there was on hand, or in sight, something like 8,000,000 bales; while labour conditions were reducing Yorkshire's capacity, Belgium and Northern France had not got back to anything like their pre-war capacity, and Germany's mills were idle, or nearly so.

The meat market is, perhaps, even more unfavourable than the wool market. In consequence, resistance to the American meat trust is breaking down. Canterbury sheep farmers have asked the Government to grant an export licence to Armour and Co. The way has been made easy by the Imperial Government, which sold large quantities of requisitioned New Zealand lamb to the United States. The lamb has won a name for quality in America, as in England. "Why not take advantage

of this good market?" ask some producers, fearful of the imminent glut. Others insist, as in the past, that, if once the American Trust gets control of the New Zealand supplies, the producers will be absolutely at its mercy. But the opponents of the Trust seem to be losing. They cannot argue away the desire to sell to the highest bidder. No case has been reported of a farmer refusing to accept the best price, when offered by suspected agents of the Trust. And, as *The Farmers' Union Advocate* says, "Many farmers' unionists are quite willing to support a policy of selling to America on a f.o.b. basis, and are not very particular whether the Meat Trust gets possession of the meat when it reaches the market."

The butter producers have not accepted the British Government's requisition without question. They have been bargaining over the price, and asking for a contract to cover the whole of the present season, with a guarantee of a free market thereafter. The price agreed upon is £14 a ton. It is expected that the local retail price will be raised to 2s. 9d. a pound.

NEARER TO CONTINENTAL CONSCRIPTION.

The changes in the compulsory training scheme vaguely foreshadowed by the Government are similar to those announced by the Australian Prime Minister. The training is not to be spread over so many years, as at present; but the period of drill in camp between the eighteenth and the twenty-first year of a boy's age is to be, ap-

parently, increased. Details are not yet announced, but the Minister of Defence, Sir Heaton Rhodes, made the following announcement in Parliament:—

"We do not intend to train beyond the age of 21 or 22. Our present system is for seven years, but we will cut it down to three years. We will, of course, keep the cadets training up to the age of 18, then give them a period in camp; after which they will be drafted to their units, giving them the choice, as far as possible, in the various branches of the service. We propose to give them so many days a year in camp, but there will be no barracks system, no training for months. It has been suggested that the period of general training in camp be from a fortnight to six weeks, and that further training be remitted if the man proves efficient. Personally, I think a fixed period in camp would be better than half-day or whole-day parades, which have made the system irritating to employers. We propose to do away entirely with parades in the country; but it will be more convenient to the Territorials in town to attend half-day parades, which will reduce the period of camp training. There can be no training camps this year, and we will also have to suspend it the year after, and the year following that." He went on to state that, although camps would be suspended, it was proposed to train non-commissioned officers and officers, who could not be made efficient in three or four months, as was the case with the men.

HOW THE PEOPLE ARE GULLED.

It is amazing what extraordinary reports coming from Europe are published in the papers. The mere fact that a wildly improbable message is cabled out here, endows it with an authority it would never enjoy if it were merely rumoured about in the street, yet much of the cable news that we get is hearsay, gossip collected by diligent correspondents in Europe. In spite of this, most people, just because

it appears in print, believe it as if it were gospel! Between the rumours—the cabling of which gives them an importance they do not deserve—and the reports sent out with the sole object of influencing public opinion, it is very difficult indeed for anyone to intelligently follow the real situation in Europe.

A glaring instance of ridiculous rumour taken seriously, was given the

other day, when a report, which appeared in the London *Times*, was published in evening papers here. It stated, under the heading "Germany's Touring Voters," that "Germany has 400,000 voters on tour, who are taking part in the plebiscite, to fix the German boundaries. They have been provided with forged documents. They first voted in Schleswig against the province being returned to Denmark, then went to East Prussia to exercise their franchise against Poland securing her hereditary territory there, and are transferring to Upper Silesia with a similar object." Could any tale be more fantastic? and yet I find to my amazement that many people actually believe that such an army really exists!

In order to demonstrate the idiocy of the report, it is only necessary to look at the figures of the plebiscites. Two of these were taken in Schleswig. In the first, the Northern portion voted itself into Denmark, and the second, the southern portion, voted to remain part of Germany. The number in favour of union with Denmark in the first case was 75,023; in favour of remaining with Germany, 25,087—a majority of 49,936 for joining Denmark. Where, one wonders, were these 400,000 travelling voters? Nor do they appear in the second plebiscite, in which, by a majority of three to one, the people voted to remain part of Germany. The total number of votes cast was about 80,000.

After the Schleswig plebiscite, we are to assume that these 400,000 voters were loaded on 400 trains and transported to East Prussia, crossing on the way the Dantzig corridor, where Poles and Allied soldiers were in control. Arrived in East Prussia, they proceeded, apparently, to record their votes in favour of the province remaining German. The vote was 96,889 in favour of remaining with Germany, and 7977 for belonging to Poland; the 400,000 "tourists" do not appear to have been very busy in East Prussia! Now we are assured that they are descending on Upper Silesia with the object of securing that pro-

vince for Germany. The total population of the district in which the plebiscite is to be taken, is under 1,000,000. Of these, probably a third would be old enough to vote. Under these circumstances, the sudden appearance of 400,000 new voters would quite conceivably be noticed by the Allied Commission which is scrupulously inspecting the electoral rolls, and is supervising the plebiscite!

Another thing which one would imagine would interfere with the transport of these 400,000 "tourists," is the lack of rolling stock in Germany. In order to convey the coal needed for different industries, it was necessary, not long ago, to suspend ordinary traffic entirely for several days. To convey these 400,000 about Germany in the manner suggested, would obviously tax the depleted rolling stock to its breaking-point. Then how are the "tourists" to be fed, how housed, how secreted? Considerations of this sort have, however, not the slightest weight with those who sent out this fantastic fairy tale, or apparently with those who read it!

As illustrating how exceedingly difficult it is to get reliable information, one should read the disclosures recently made about Denekine's propaganda activities in South Russia. The brilliant idea occurred to him to reprint a *facsimile* of the official Bolshevik newspaper published in Moscow. In this, he included reports of massacres, nationalisation of women, and the like, and then spread the paper abroad as the genuine Bolshevik article. Received in other countries, it is not surprising that it was assumed to have been printed in Moscow, and people naturally said if the Bolsheviks themselves admit these things, then they must be true. It was some time before the scheme was exposed, and even yet this "Bolshevik" paper is being quoted. Many, perhaps most, of the reports alleged to come from Bolshevik sources are manufactured for anti-Bolshevik propaganda purposes by men who have never been anywhere near Russia, but most people seem to believe them.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE



Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—BURNS



The Star.

[London.

DAVID, THE SPOKESMAN: "Off with the spiked hat! What d'you think we fought for if not to abolish militarism?"

David Low very cleverly portrays the European position in his cartoon showing the Allies abolishing militarism.

Great Britain's efforts to secure the oil output of the world have pro-



Chronicle.

[San Francisco.

THE CHAMPION ABSORBER.



Nebelspalter.

[Zurich.

We now hear that the seat of the League of Nations will neither be in Brussels nor in Geneva, but in the Moon. Only from there will it be possible to obtain a complete view of the stupidities of the earth.



Nebelspalter. [Zurich.

POINCAIRE'S RESIGNATION.

(Poincaré has resigned his position as President of the Reparation Committee.)

"I took the laurel wreath with grace;
And thought I had Napoleon's place;
I gave it up, for soon 'twas seen
They thought 'twould suit me—being
green."

duced a crop of satirical cartoons in the American papers.

The frankest criticisms of the League of Nations not unnaturally come from the neutral papers. The *Nebelspalter* suggests that its right seat should be in the moon. The same paper deals satirically with ex-President Poincaré's resignation from the Reparations Commission.



Star.

[London.

THE ALLIED PECKSNIFFS: "How can you expect people to associate with you when you follow this policy of revenge? When will you learn to love your enemies as—ahem—we do?"

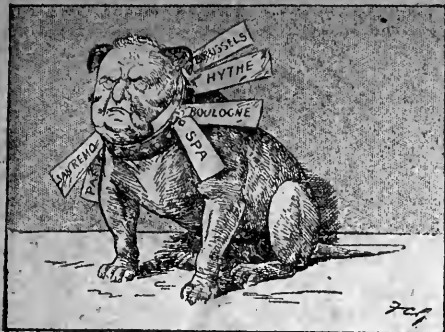


Il Travaso.

THE ONLY WAY

[Rome.

To keep up British prestige in Asia Minor.



[Westminster Gazette.] [London.]

"'E DUNNO WHERE 'E ARE!"

THE JOHN BULLDOG: "I suppose I shall get somewhere, sometime!"

The meetings of Lloyd George and Millerand at various pleasure resorts suggest the cartoon on this page, by F.C.G. David Low shows the two redoubtable Prime Ministers using Germany as a steed, finding fault with the Russian treatment of Poland. That was, of course, before the Polish victories, when the Bolsheviks were rushing on Warsaw.

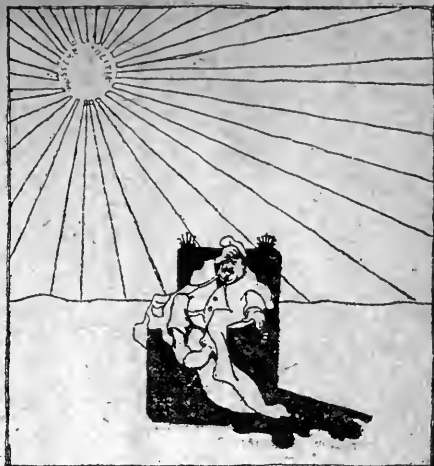
The Italian newspapers are not at all pleased with the partition of the Turkish Empire between France, Great Britain and Greece. *Il Traverso* suggests a way in which British prestige could be best maintained in Asia Minor—an allusion to the mishaps which have occurred to British troops in Mesopotamia and elsewhere.

David Low's cartoon of Winston Churchill in the dock was inspired by the Golovin exposures, which showed that the War Minister was prepared to assist the anti-Bolsheviks, at the expense of the British taxpayer, without much regard for



[Sun.]

[Pittsburgh.]
THE KILKENNY CATS.



[Nebelspalter.]

DESERTED EBERT.

[Zurich.]

Alone in the German international political desert.



[John Bull.]

BUBBLES—AND BOMBS.

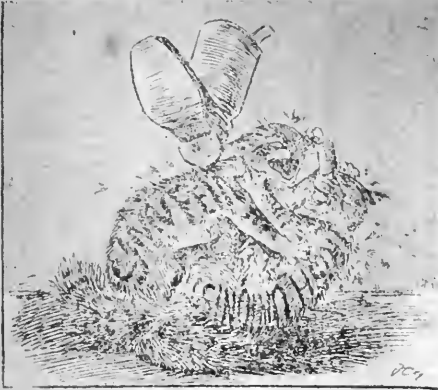
[London.]



[Star.]

[London.]

"Winston Churchill, you are indicted for conspiring wilfully to misuse and waste British lives and property. How do you plead?"
"I refuse to discuss the matter."



Westminster Gazette.] [London.
CONFOUND THOSE CATS!

veracity. Churchill declined to do more than make a very vague statement when challenged on the matter in Parliament.

The *Nebelspalter* is publishing a series of cartoons on conditions in different continents. Two of these are reproduced on this page.

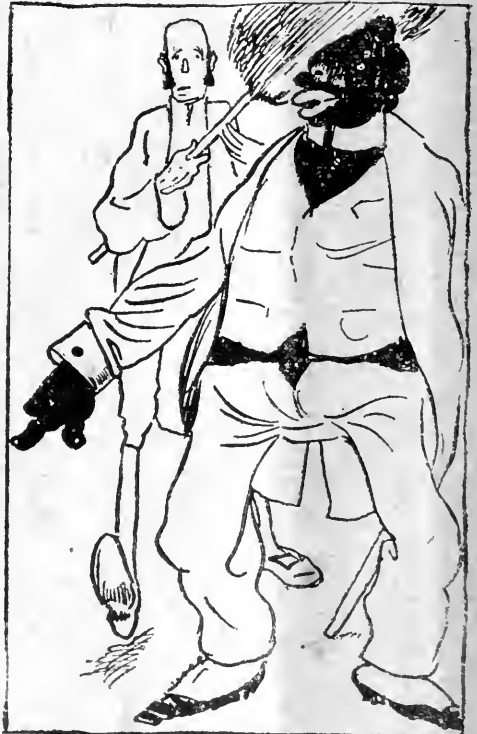


Nebelspalter.]

In Asia everything goes according to plan. This little fellow is steadily developing into the real yellow peril.



Star. [London.
"So that's the idea you've got under your little hat, is it?"



[Zurich.

In Africa things are fine. The negroes, having become rich through their help in winning justice and morality for the world, have now been able to engage white servants.



Dayton News.] SHATTERED.

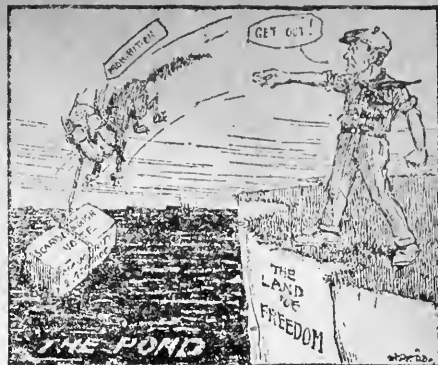
The question of Prohibition is naturally much to the fore in the United States. The decision of the Supreme Court as to the legality of the Pro-



Passing Show.] [London.

"WELCOME, SAM!"

(The invasion of American visitors is now at its height.)



Sunday Sportsman.] [London.

LABOUR'S THROW.

At the Scarborough Labour Conference the local veto proposals were defeated by a majority of 2,400,000.



Evening News.] [London.

TRANSPORT.

ERIC: "Look here! I don't see why it shouldn't work. The machinery is perfectly simple."



Press.]

WHO? ME? [Philadelphia.



Dayton News.]
THE CANDIDATE.

hibition Act is the subject of a cartoon in *The Dayton News*, but the Presidential campaign monopolises the attention of the American cartoonists. Every phase of the struggle finds expression in the rival newspapers, but it is somewhat astonishing



Eagle.] [Brooklyn.
YOU CAN KILL AN ANIMAL WITH
KINDNESS.

to find that the Democrats, who were more or less on the defensive when the campaign began, have now adopted aggressive tactics, and have the Republicans defending themselves. The scandal over the campaign contributions naturally offers cartoonists a great opportunity which they do not fail to seize.

The Brooklyn Citizen suggests that Villa, the Mexican fox, will not be caught in the trap so artfully baited for him by General Obregon.



Dayton News.]
"Those rotten, worm-eaten planks won't hold me!"



Citizen.] [Brooklyn.
THE MEXICAN FOX.

MEN OF MARK.

SIR HAMAR GREENWOOD.

The Man Who Would Settle the Irish Question.

No man in English politics has had a more romantic career than Sir Hamar Greenwood, who now fills the position of Chief Secretary for Ireland, an office which has been the grave of so many reputations. The Government of England has long been in the hands of a select clique—the Hotel Cecil on the one side and the great Whig families on the other. It was as difficult for an outsider to get into the charmed circle of the Cabinet as for a camel to get through the eye of a needle. The war, of course, altered that, but even before it broke out, this forceful Canadian was already marked out for Ministerial office. Who would have dreamed that the young man who landed in Liverpool from a cattle boat a few years ago, with a few pence in his pocket, would ere long be trusted with the task of settling the almost insoluble Irish problem, be one of the dozen men who control the mighty British Empire?

The days when every French soldier had a Marshal's baton in his knapsack passed with Napoleon, and across the Channel it has become increasingly difficult for the man lacking money and influence to win to the top in British politics. That Sir Hamar—an unknown, penniless, "colonial"—without influential friends and destitute of political pull should have been able to get into Parliament, and, once in, to have risen so rapidly to Cabinet rank, speaks volumes for his ability and determination. It has been said of him, that his cool bluff was responsible for his success, but bluff is a poor reed to lean on in Parliament, and although it may help a man on, he could never get into the Imperial Government unless he had sterling qualities behind it. Sir Hamar, it is true, has the advantage of an im-

posing figure, an impressive manner, a ready wit, and a great command of words. As a platform speaker he has few equals in the Empire to-day, and it was this gift of his which won him the introduction into political life which he turned to such splendid account.

Whilst studying for the bar, Greenwood had to earn his living, and amongst other things to which he turned his hand was journalism. This brought him into contact with my father, and during his connection with the *Review of Reviews* in London, I saw much of him. His breezy style and abounding energy made him deservedly popular, and his amazing skill in weaving fact and fiction into entrancing story, insured him a welcome wherever he went. He was easily the most popular amongst the many visitors who used to run down to my father's place on Hayling Island, although I must confess that he much preferred to watch and direct others labouring at the oars, setting up tents, making fires, and generally doing the work incidental to a camping expedition, than to take a hand himself.

The future baronet was born in Canada, his father having migrated to the Province of Ontario from Wales. Young Hamar—who by the way was christened Thomas Hamer, but later changed the "e" to an "a"—did the chores like other Canadian boys, attended the State School, and later entered the Model School in his home town of Whitby, determined to qualify as a teacher. He had hardly started his classes when he heard of a vacancy in the village school of Manchester, near by. This position was regarded as the best in the county, and Hamar resolved to get it, despite his lack of preparation and experience. He lobbied

so successfully that he secured the appointment, returning to Whitby for a visit later in order to pass the examination which all teachers were required to do *before* obtaining positions. Whilst at Manchester he filled many roles. The teacher was called on, for instance, to give the chief address at wedding breakfasts, to officiate at funerals, if the Minister was absent, and generally was expected to make himself useful in the community.

Many are the stories he tells of the extraordinary situations he sometimes found himself in. On one occasion he was called to give the funeral oration at the burial of the village waster and bully. This man drank, beat his wife, neglected his home and children, and his death was frankly welcomed by the whole community. Greenwood made the most of the meagre subject. Realising it would never do to tell the brutal truth, he wove a fantastic picture of what the deceased might have been had the circumstances been different and, warming to his theme, suggested that possibly he had been misunderstood, and that beneath the unprepossessing exterior they had all come to know, might have been a generous heart, and so on and so forth. His audience was quite thrilled, and at the end the widow, with tears streaming down her face, came to the orator and said, "To think, sir, I lived with him all those years, and never knew what he really was until you spoke so beautifully about him." The young teacher took a leading part in the dramatic life at Manchester. He wrote a melodrama which was immensely popular, and in which he acted the villain.

Like so many Canadians and Americans he had to work hard during vacations in order to be able to attend the University. There he studied economics but, taking a leading part in the student's revolt, was obliged to temporarily sever his connection with his college. The revolt demanded more competent administration of the University in Toronto, and had its effect. Amongst the things he did to get his college fees was to work as a lumper

in Buffalo, as a temporary clerk in the Department of Agriculture, and in a touring dramatic company. He always took a deep interest in the militia, to which he belonged for eight years. His adventures in camp, and getting recruits, as told by him, would fascinate any audience. He distinguished himself amongst other things by arresting 50 soldiers for crossing the American border in uniform, thus raising an important issue between Canada and the United States.

His experiences made him a convinced Prohibitionist, and soon after he landed in Liverpool he began speaking on the temperance platform. His success was so great that he was soon engaged as a lecturer by the temperance people. His ability on the platform was reported to Liberal headquarters, and he was thereafter in much demand at by-elections. By this time he had abandoned his original intention of taking up a theatrical career and decided to enter the political arena. To make a livelihood, however, he determined to become a barrister and set to work to study law. In order to get the funds required he turned his hand to all manner of things, but relied chiefly on lecturing and newspaper work. His temperance activities brought him into close contact with the Rowntrees, and under their auspices he put up as Liberal candidate for York in 1906. Returned at the top of the poll, he became Winston Churchill's secretary when the latter was Under-Secretary for the Colonies, and a strong friendship developed between the two men, who are alike in many things. By this time Greenwood had been called to the Bar, and later on enjoyed a very large practice in the Admiralty courts. At the General Election in January, 1910, he was defeated by a narrow majority, but at the next election, in December of that year, brilliantly won Sunderland for Liberalism, and has held the seat ever since, scoring a decisive victory there at the recent by-election made necessary by his elevation to Cabinet rank.

Meeting Miss Margery Spencer under romantic circumstances in Jamaica, he married her soon after, having first, however, to overcome a strong prejudice against an "upstart colonial," felt by the young lady's family of old English stock. He has three children, two girls and a boy. When the war broke out he became 'Lieut.-Colonel of a Welsh regiment, but after a short time in France came back to England, and devoted himself to recruiting and later to work in the Ministry of Munitions. He was created a baronet on his return from France in 1915, and became a K.C. in 1918. In the reorganisation of the Ministry, after the khaki election in December, 1918, he was appointed Under-Secretary of Home Affairs.

At the most critical moment in the relations between England and Ireland he has been summoned to take charge of the Irish Office. If any man can succeed there, he can, but, alas! the situation seems to have passed altogether beyond the control of any Irish Secretary no matter how capable and sympathetic. His appointment is, however, significant. He is a Canadian, born and bred in a country enjoying that complete independence the Sinn Féiner's demand. He has always been

an ardent Home Ruler, and approaches the question from a different angle to that of a statesman nurtured in English traditions. He is not at all afraid of smashing precedents or of shouldering responsibility. He is a close personal friend of the Prime Minister and of the Secretary for War, and is admittedly a strong man himself. Colonel Amery, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, author of the History of the South African War, and one of the most brilliant men in the Government, is his brother-in-law.

For an unknown Canadian to storm the citadel of the British Government as Sir Hamar has done, is a unique achievement. The only other Canadian who won distinction at Westminster was Edward Blake, but he never reached ministerial rank. Henniker Heaton was the only Australian to do well in the British Parliament. Sir George Reid was a failure there, and the more recent arrivals from the antipodes have thus far failed to make their mark. Let us hope that the first Colonial to become a Minister of the Crown in Great Britain will somehow or other achieve success in the herculean task set him. Everyone who knows him personally will fervently wish him well.

ROBERT SMILLIE, COALMINER.

At the time of this writing, Britain seems closer to a revolutionary industrial war than at any time since the Chartist movement of ninety years ago. The leader of the revolutionary movement is Robert Smillie, President of the Miners' Federation, and of the Triple Alliance. This is not to say that Smillie has any desire to rouse the workers to arms to seize property and power. He is opposed to methods of violence. But the principles around which the struggle is being waged are Smillie's principles, and they involve a revolution from the present industrial order, and also from the present trade unionism.

So Smillie has undertaken a double fight. He is fighting for social ownership against private ownership of the

mines. Defeated in the first battle for nationalisation, he has turned to his followers, and has found division among them. He must win over or defeat his opponents within his own ranks before he can hope for the larger victory. His immediate quarrel with the old trade unionism is this: Each trade that has obtained higher wages or better conditions has cared nothing that the cost of these benefits has been passed on as a burden to the workers in other trades, through a rise in the price of the product. Smillie and the Federation won better wages and conditions for the miners; the cost was promptly passed on to the community, the price of domestic coal being raised by 14/2 per ton. Such operations have been common, almost uni-

versal in the past. Smillie demands a change. He insists that, while the coal operators are winning a surplus estimated at £66,000,000 for the year, they have no justification for increasing the price of the poor man's coal. According to the reports in *The Labour Leader*, he asked the Leamington Conference of miners, in July, to concentrate on this demand, rather than on the wage increase. He supports the wage increase also, on the ground that the workers are entitled to some of the large profits. Henderson, Clynes, and other Labour leaders of the old order are opposing him. If they are truly reported in the cables, they want him to forget about the profits and social ownership, and even about the passing on of the burden of cost. Why should he not be content with the old plan of fighting for higher wages—even though that policy injures all the workers except those who get the rise?

Robert Smillie became a shipyard worker at 14; began life in the coal-pits of Lanarkshire, Scotland, at 16. At the age of 31 he was supporting a family of six on 16s. 6d. a week. He and his wife and children have lived so near the hunger line that he knows well what misery a great strike brings to hundreds of thousands of homes.

The powerful frame of the miner was bent by the toil of his youth and early manhood. He has confessed, too, that his spirit suffered; he grew up with "a most bitter feeling" against the capitalist class, and the individual capitalist.

I believed that all the evils our people suffered from could be laid at the door of the employing classes, and I could not distinguish at the time between the individual employer and the system. But I have got beyond that now, and do not hold individual employers responsible for the system, but the system I hold to be responsible for actions which I have felt to be wrong actions on the part of individual employers.

This confession was made in October, 1916. Smillie had been invited to address a conference of Quakers, who were considering the problems of industrial strife. He spoke of improved housing; higher wages, and shorter hours as "merely palliatives." He con-

demned the present "system of competition" on the ground that "it does not give the workers in any industry a real desire to do their best." Such an assertion sounds like a rather foolish paradox to those who believe that competition is the soul of progress, but Smillie knows of Ruskin, William Morris and other prophets, who have claimed that the mere fear of unemployment and hunger is a miserably poor incentive to good work. The value of his alternative to the system of competition has yet to be proved, but he has drawn out his plans, has actually published the draft of a Bill for the nationalisation of the mines of Britain. Briefly, he would place the mines under the joint control of the Government, the fuel consumers and the miners—represented by the Federation.

Smillie does not shriek of "class-consciousness." In the confession we have been quoting, he said he looked for the change of the industrial system to come from "a combination of the best, that is to say, from the men and women of the middle classes, the educated classes, joining with the workers." For, he said, "thousands of educated people feel as Ruskin, Morris and such men felt, that the present system is wrong."

Questioned on the subject of strikes, Smillie said he was opposed to striking—if it could be avoided. But he believed it ought to be kept as a last resort, for his experience had been that the employers would never come together to meet the workers' representatives unless the workers were in a position to strike. But in nine cases out of ten, free and full discussion would bring a settlement. The tenth case—that is the difficulty! When the Miners' Federation asks that the owners of the coal royalties, and the operating companies should yield up the mines to the nation, without any compensation for the royalties, no one expects these folk to discuss the matter with judicial calmness. It is plainly the tenth case. It is a challenge to private property. Private property has taken up the challenge; the employers of Britain are uniting to close all industries if the

Triple Alliance carries out the threat to strike. The fight is on; the actual clash may be postponed by realisation, on one side or the other, that the odds are too heavy at present, or else by intervention of the State. But friendly discussion on such an issue no one can expect—least of all Robert Smillie.

People who knew little of Smillie were puzzled last year by the sensation he created at the hearings of the Coal Commission. He had several Peers summoned before the Commission to give evidence as to their legal titles to coal royalties. Now, the notion of calling into question these hereditary titles, some of them centuries old, might have occurred to many young and passionate Socialists. But the Peers would only have smiled at their questions, and Britain and the world would have smiled with the Peers. But, Smillie being the questioner, it was a different case; their Lordships could not fend off the attack with a smile. They had to answer seriously, though it might be with indignation.

Lord Durham said: "No one has disputed my ownership."

Mr. Smillie replied: "We are disputing it now. I am trying to be as fair as possible, to examine without bitterness. We allege that no title deeds exist that justify your ownership. The State is the owner."

These examinations in the King's Robing Room, which might have seemed a mere impertinence, gained, in Smillie's hands, historical significance. Hereditary nobles put on their defence by the bent toiler of the mines. That was picturesque. Might it not be an emblem of the new order?

The personality of the miners' representative seems to have been the deciding factor in the scene. Robert Smillie is 63 years old, a dour-looking Scot, with deep-lined face. In organising the large-fisted, uncouth men of the pits into a united body, he has learned much of human nature. He has learned, among other things, to command with humility. An admirer, describing his examination of the coal-owning Peers,

says that his wide social experience and "gentleness of conscious power," enabled him to be scorned and patronised and outwitted without at all being defeated. "Smillie let them outplay him and wound him, because every blow they dealt him was aimed at the working class, and revealed their animus. So he was defeated by the Lords in the King's Robing Room, but won a victory over them in the nation." His speech was direct and simple, as always. He cared nothing for the skirmishes. He went straight for the main objective.

Smillie's strategy within the Labour movement has been of the same order. He has had to take many an unkind blow. He has accepted it and gone his way; and at every crisis the confidence of the rank and file in his leadership has become more manifest. His critical attitude toward British policy in the Great War won him many foes within the ranks of Labour; but his position as leader of the miners became firmer established.

Smillie has a rule never to accept social invitations. This policy is accounted one of the secrets of his power. It brings him into contrast, as Arthur Gleason has said, with "the noisy trade union secretary who frequents the Savoy; the delicately-balancing Labour leader and M.P. who dines with duchesses and leaks away his early consciousness of mission; and all the line of the flattered, who climb instead of march. Keir Hardie gave Smillie his spiritual vision."

During the war Smillie took a leading part in the work of the Council for Civil Liberties, of which he was the first president. Two of his sons were conscientious objectors, and there seems every likelihood that, if the father had been within the military age, he would have been among those sent to prison for their beliefs. But he had sympathies beyond the range of those who agreed with him, and he has often pleaded the soldiers' cause. Besides the two sons who refused military service, he had two who enlisted in the army, and three who undertook work in the essential in-

dustry of mining. The diversity of the courses taken by the seven sons argues freedom from forceful restraint. May we find there one of the secrets of the father's power?

"Daddy, what did you do in the great war?" asks the child in the recruiting poster. There is a story that a friend asked Smillie, "Well, Bob, what is your answer when your grandchild puts it to you?" and that Smillie answered, "I'll tell him I did my best to stop the bloody business." In one of the wars that followed the Great War Smillie played a more effective part in stopping the business. He demanded the withdrawal of the British troops from Russia, and he was able to back up his demand with the power of the Miners' Federation. His friends credit him with having been chiefly responsible for the Allied withdrawal from Russia. At the same time he was fighting against the blockade of Germany, and against the continued imprisonment of conscientious objectors.

Another story—this well vouched for—illustrates Robert Smillie's attitude during the war. Professor Bertrand Russell (whose pacifist convictions later earned for him a change from a professor's robe at Cambridge to a broad-arrowed suit in prison) had been announced to deliver a speech at Glasgow, when the Government forbade him to enter that district. Robert Smillie was among the speakers. The audience was greatly surprised to hear him read his speech; it was unprecedented. The manner of his remarks seemed strange, too. At the close, Smillie said: "That, ladies and gentlemen, is what Mr. Russell would have said if he had been permitted to be present to-night."

Capitalism, in Smillie's opinion, is the root cause of practically every war that has been fought in the last hundred years. "I am an internationalist absolutely," he said in 1916, "and, if I could get my way, I would, at the end of the war, as President of the National Miners' Federation, call a conference of the miners of every country in Europe. I have no hatred at all for the miners of Germany. My sympathy goes out

to German mothers; mothers are alike all over the world."

Internationalism of this order was not popular during the war. The situation in the present industrial war in Britain is similar. Many of the most popular and powerful leaders demand that the miners should concentrate on a selfish fight; Smillie asks them to extend their sympathies—to accept no settlement that will not guarantee the rest of the working community from suffering through the miners' gain. Will he, through taking this wider outlook, lose the support of the great organisation he has built up? A cablegram published in the daily press predicts that he will. It remains to be seen. He has had many rebuffs. Yet he has gone from strength to strength, and he now has the support of the strongest alliance of unions in the world—the miners' 800,000; the railway workers' 400,000; and the transport workers' 250,000.

As a politician in the Parliamentary field, Robert Smillie has been a failure—more than once rejected by his home constituency. But many writers declare him the most powerful man in the whole Labour movement, political or industrial. Lloyd George twice paid tribute to his power—once by offering him a Cabinet post, and again by denouncing him on the eve of the 1918 election.

Whether his power vanishes or increases, there is no question of the honest earnestness of Robert Smillie. On this point the glowing praise of fellow-Socialists is hardly as striking as the modest appreciation expressed by Viscount Esher in his book, "After the War." He addresses the book to Smillie, because "he represents and leads the most advanced sections of the Labour Party."

In explaining his reason for this dedication, Lord Esher said: "I selected Mr. Smillie as being, as far as I could judge, the leader of the new democracy into whose hands the supreme control of the destinies of our country was about to fall. I see no reason to change my opinion."

A Talk About Prohibition.

There is no more happy way of conveying information easily to people than by throwing it into the form of a conversation. The Catechism remains the most popular section of STEAD'S, and the "Talk About Conscription," which I compiled just before the first referendum was taken, was, I have been told, one of the most convincing documents published on the subject. An election is to take place in Victoria within the next few weeks, and on that occasion the people are to be asked to vote whether licences are to be granted in future or not. I have received many enquiries from readers on the subject, and hope that the following conversation between two imaginary persons—a Searcher for Information, and a Prohibitionist—will give them the information they seek.

The Searcher for Information.—What actually is the question which is to be put to the electors of Victoria?

Prohibitionist.—Three questions are to be asked, "Are you in favour of Continuance?" "Are you in favour of Reduction?" "Are you in favour of No-Licences being given?" That is to say, do you wish the licences at present in force to be renewed, do you wish them to be reduced, or do you wish them all to be cancelled, and no new ones to be issued?

S.—Does the State vote as a whole?

P.—No. The decision is made in each division of an electorate. One division may carry no-licence, and the neighbouring ones may not.

S.—Does a bare majority suffice?

P.—To carry no-licence there must be a majority of five to three. To carry reduction a bare majority suffices.

S.—Does no-licence mean prohibition?

P.—No; it means that no licence would be granted to hotels, grocers, clubs, or indeed to anyone to sell wine, beer, spirits, or liquor of any sort, but the individual desiring wine or spirits for his own consumption could get it, under certain restrictions, from places where no-licence had not been carried, or from other States. The abolition of licences makes it more difficult for the householder to obtain liquor for consumption on his own premises, but it does not make it illegal for him to have it in his own possession. Naturally, however, if he sells it without a licence, he will get into trouble with authority. Prohibition deprives the individual of

the right of having liquor in his possession.

S.—Why should there be any interference with the present arrangement?

P.—The reason why we are fighting for the abolition of licences is because we believe that liquor is bad for the community as a whole, and that, by doing away with bars altogether, crime will be reduced, and thousands of homes will be made happy instead of miserable.

S.—That is all very well, but has it not been proved in England, during the war, when beer ran short, that workmen were unable to do as much work as before, and output dropped?

P.—Mr. Lloyd George is reported to have made that assertion, and it may have been true. At the same time, it is well to remember that when beer was short, food generally was short also in England, and it is reasonable to assume that not having enough to eat had even more to do with drop in output than not having as much beer as usual. But you can easily find out for yourself by enquiring of your friends who employ men, whether those amongst their workers who do not drink do less work, and have a smaller output than those who do.

S.—What I object to is that you are interfering with the liberty of the subject, if you carry no-licence. If a man wants to drink, why should he not be allowed to?

P.—To protect a man against himself by legislation is nothing new. You might as well resent having to get your children vaccinated, or having to

notify the health authorities when one of them gets scarlet fever. It is interfering with your liberty, but you don't resent it. You may want to get opium to smoke, but you are not allowed to do so.

S.—That is a very different matter. Small pox and scarlet fever are dangerous diseases, which are infectious. There is no danger in having a drink.

P.—That is your opinion. But, assuming you are right, in a democracy the majority rules. If more than half the people want the bars closed, then the minority must submit. In the conscription referendum, had a bare majority been in favour of forcing every man of military age to bear arms, they would all have had to submit, despite the fact that almost half the people had strongly opposed sending them to camp. That was a far more drastic interference with the liberty of the subject than no-licence would be. I remember you were a conscriptionist, and an ardent one at that.

S.—Supposing you do carry no-licence, what will become of the thousands of men and women now employed in breweries, bars and other related trades, who would be thrown out of employment?

P.—The throwing of these people out of work is one of the strongest arguments used by the liquor people. They declare that no fewer than 22 trades would be dealt a mortal blow by prohibition, and that 100,000 people will be thrown helpless on to a crowded labour market, and that thousands more in related industries will be reduced to idleness. If that were so, then the adoption of no-licence would be a national calamity. The figures are obviously exaggerated. For instance, amongst those who are to be dealt a "mortal blow," are barley growers, licensed grocers, aerated water manufacturers, cork merchants, marine store dealers, bottle manufacturers, and coopers.

S.—Perhaps the people employed in all of these trades would not be thrown out of work, but obviously those em-

ployed in breweries and distilleries would lose their jobs.

P.—They might do so temporarily; but the numbers are not great. In the seventeen breweries of Victoria, 929 hands are employed, and in the 11 distilleries, 258 find employment. With regard to the growers of barley, they would not be very badly hit. In Victoria, 84,900 acres are devoted to this cereal, 41,000 of them growing malting barley. The total value of the barley crop was £419,412 in 1917-18, so that malting barley would be worth about £200,000. In the same year the area under oats was 293,214 acres, and under wheat 2,690,000 acres. The value of the Victorian wheat crop was £8,962,669, and of the oat crop was £1,145,094. If the 41,000 acres now devoted to the growing of barley were used for the growing of wheat or oats, there would be some loss, but not very much. The average value of the wheat grown per acre was £3 6s. 8d., of oats £3 18s. 1d., and of barley, £4 18s. 9d.; but the barley fields would probably give a considerably higher yield per acre if sown in wheat or oats than the average grown on the millions of acres devoted to their culture in the State.

S.—Perhaps the barley grower would not be ruined, but the bottle maker and the cork merchant would be seriously hit.

P.—The demand for bottles is already much greater than the supply, and there is no doubt that a temporary drop in the demand for beer and other liquor bottles would quickly be made good by supplying bottles for "canning" fruits, as has been the case in America. The cork merchant was undoubtedly more badly hit by the introduction of the patent fastener for beer bottles than he would be by no-licence. I recall no protests from the liquor interests about his being ruined at that time! You would probably be astonished to learn that the total value of the corks, bungs and rings, imported into Victoria last year, was £10,340. The cork merchants' profit would hardly exceed 10 per cent. of this £10,340.

S.—But the vine growers will certainly be ruined?

P.—It is an astonishing fact that after prohibition was enforced in America the price of grapes went up until it was double what it had been before the war. There was a great demand for grapes for non-alcoholic fruit drinks, a good market in Europe for dried grapes, and in addition a huge demand for fresh fruit of all sorts developed throughout the whole country. As far as Victoria is concerned, the vine growers will probably survive safely. In 1914 there were 2253 in the State cultivating 28,000 acres. They produced 1,832,286 gallons of wine and 30,300 cwts. of raisins. In 1918 the number of vine growers was 1843, and the acreage under cultivation 25,236. Only 800,000 gallons of wine were made, but raisins had increased to 105,000 cwts. The production increased in 1919, but of the total crop of 1,920,379 cwts., only 215,255 were used for wine-making, roughly one-tenth. Presumably, therefore, if no more grapes were wanted for wine making ten per cent. of the growers would be ruined, or all of them would for the time being make only nine-tenths of their present profit.

S.—Then there are the marine store dealers. What about them?

P.—I don't see how they are going to be ruined, but it is hardly worth while going into every case of trades which might possibly be hit by the introduction of no-licence. The only reasonable thing to do is to see what has happened in other places when no-licence was brought in or prohibition was enforced.

S.—If you close the bars all the best hotels in the State would have to shut their doors, as it is the sale of liquor which makes the hotel business profitable.

P.—In other words, you mean that a hotel proprietor takes in guests more or less out of charity, and that it would pay him better not to have them at all? If that is the case, why does he worry about catering for them.

S.—Because, once he has them in his hotel, they consume liquor on which he makes a profit.

P.—Probably as things are at present, a hotel with a licence would attract more visitors than one without any, but when no licences at all were granted, people would naturally go to the hotel where they were best catered for. The travelling public is not going to stop travelling if no-licence is carried. In America the hotels seem to be doing as well as ever, some say they are doing better, owing to the fact that there is so much more prosperity than formerly. People must stay somewhere, and if hitherto hotel proprietors have charged their guests too little for board and residence, their rates will have to be generally increased. One would imagine that few people really want to live cheaply, thanks to other people drinking deeply. Those who spent money in hotels on liquor could presumably afford to spend, at any rate, as much on food, which, according to you, would have to be more expensive when the bars closed.

S.—The liquor industry pays the Australian Government an annual revenue of £7,000,000. How do you propose to make that good?

P.—That figure stares at us from the hoardings, but I have found it difficult to verify. In the first place, it refers to the whole of the Commonwealth, not to Victoria, where the question of no-licence is to be decided. It is therefore as misleading as the statement made by the anti-liquor people that the drink bill of Australia is £19,744,470. Both sides mix up Victoria and the whole of Australia, and try to saddle Commonwealth figures on the former.

S.—It ought not to be difficult to check the figure, though, as it is presumably made up of excise and customs payments.

P.—In it must be many other payments. The total amount of excise paid the Federal Treasurer for beer and spirits in 1917-18 was £2,508,364. On a per capita basis Victoria's share

would be £800,000. In addition the Victorian Treasury got £158,842 for licences. The amount paid in customs' duty upon imported stimulants for the whole Commonwealth was £1,692,256. On this Victoria paid £390,788. If Victoria went dry, the Commonwealth Government would have to raise £1,200,000 revenue in some other way, and the Government of Victoria would have to find £158,842.

S.—But that is not £7,000,000. What other taxes does the industry pay?

P.—Presumably to get the total, the income tax paid by hotel keepers, breweries, distilleries, and their shareholders are also included. As prohibition would be a "death sentence" on them—so we are told—they would not be able to pay any income tax at all. It is interesting, by the way, to find that the total amount of income tax paid by hotel keepers in Victoria was £6128 only. Putting the Federal tax at twice that we find that altogether they only paid £18,000 in income tax. On a proportional basis the other hotel keepers in Australia paid £60,000. Do not forget, however, that even if the £7,000,000 is correct, and even if everyone connected with the industry is ruined, and can pay no more taxes, only Victoria's share of this £7,000,000 would have to be made good. On a per capita basis this would amount to £2,300,000 only, and that sum would have to be divided between the Commonwealth and the State. To find the money would not be a tremendous business after all.

S.—What about the drink bill you mentioned?

P.—According to the official statistics, the average value of the liquor consumed in the Commonwealth every year is £16,733,800. The anti-liquor people have added to this the difference between wholesale and retail price, and calculate that something like £20,000,000 is paid annually by the people for the liquor they consume. The value of the liquor consumed in Victoria is £5,260,000. The amount paid for it by the public would presumably be about £6,000,000. Prohibitionists insist the

community would be immensely benefited if this money, instead of being drunk up, were used to swell savings bank deposits, to purchase houses, and to add to home comforts.

S.—But that money does not go out of the country. It stays here, and circulates here just the same.

P.—At least £350,000 of it goes to pay for imported stimulants, and therefore leaves the country. At least £390,000 of it goes to the Federal Government to be spent all over Australia. The balance goes from the hands of the many to the hands of the few. It enriches a few hundreds, and impoverishes many thousands, or at any rate keeps them near the bread line.

S.—Are there many places where prohibition has been in force for a long time?

P.—It is commonly asserted that the experiment of no-licence in Victoria ought not to be made until we see how prohibition works in the United States. Those who regard "No-licence" as more or less of a fad, and certainly a novelty, will be surprised to know that it has been in force for almost 70 years in the State of Maine, U.S.A., in Kansas for 40 years, in North Dakota for 30 years, and in Oklahoma for 13 years. Since 1908 no fewer than 29 other States have adopted prohibition. In order to carry the National Prohibition Amendment to the Constitution, it was necessary to get Congress by a two-thirds vote in both Houses to approve it, and then get the Act ratified by 36 out of the 48 States. In order to alter the Constitution again, those opposed to prohibition would have to get the same majority of States in their favour, as well as two-thirds of Congress. This is exceedingly unlikely. Nearer home, no-licence has been tried in New Zealand, the first district to go dry being Clutha, 26 years ago. There are now 12 no-licence districts in New Zealand, and at the 1914 election, the people of the whole Dominion were almost equally divided on the question of prohibition, 257,442 votes being re-

corded for continuance, and 247,217 for prohibition. Every province of Canada, except Quebec—and it is 84 per cent. dry—has enacted prohibition, and the legislation is permanent, not merely a war measure. Newfoundland went dry in 1917. The first province to go dry was Prince Edward Island, in 1901.

S.—Is it a fact that drunkenness really decreases in prohibition districts? Is not sly grog selling rampant?

P.—That is the usual cry. Prevent the sale of liquor, we are told, and you will ruin many thousands. But people will get the liquor just the same. Where will they get it from? Could the sly grog seller possibly produce anything like as much liquor as the breweries and distilleries. Of course he could not. Sly grog selling naturally takes place in prohibition districts. Some people will get liquor no matter what the cost, but as the younger generation grows up without a taste for liquor sly grog selling declines. The sly grog seller exists just as the smuggler of opium exists. Both are violating the law, and both suffer severely if caught. The statistics in prohibition States in America prove conclusively that drunkenness decreases rapidly. Even in dry districts surrounded by wet areas, there is a decline in drunkenness, although liquor can be obtained without breaking the law.

S.—Can you give me any figures?

P.—To begin with, it is worth noting those for Victoria itself. In 1916 the law closing bars at 6 o'clock came into force. In 1914 there were 14,437 arrests and summonses for drunkenness. In 1915 there were 13,453. In 1916 the number dropped to 11,316; in 1917 it was 7575; and in 1918 it was 5987. Some discount these figures, saying that those who were usually arrested for drunkenness had answered their country's call and were fighting to make the world safe for democracy in the trenches in France. In England, however, where the Government drastically restricted the hours during which bars might be open, and prohibited treating,

the number of convictions for drunkenness in London dropped from 63,765 in 1916, to 7849 in 1918. This, you will say, was due to all available fighting men being in France. To some extent that is the reason, but female drunkenness dropped almost as much as the male. In 1914, 18,577 women were arrested in London for drunkenness; in 1917, there were only 5736 arrested. These figures show that when the getting of liquor is made difficult, drunkenness decreases. The sly grog seller in a country where the sale of liquor is forbidden, will slowly disappear. He flourishes in cases where dry and wet districts are intermingled.

S.—When people have had experience of prohibition do they hasten to escape from it?

P.—On the contrary, experience seems to show that after the bars have been closed for some time the people in those districts never vote them open again. Instead, neighbouring districts, with the object-lesson provided by prohibition before them, wish to have it themselves. No district carried for no-licence in New Zealand has ever reverted to the old order. In Canada province after province has voted itself dry, until only the Yukon territory and part of Quebec are wet. As already mentioned, the United States could not go dry as a whole until 36 of the 48 States had actually adopted prohibition. The figures of districts which had to vote several times on the matter are interesting. In Oregon, in 1910, there was a majority of 17,574 against prohibition. Four years later it was carried by a majority of 36,480, and, after two years' experience of being dry, an amendment prohibiting the importation of liquor into the State from outside was carried by a majority of 54,626. The State of Kansas has been dry for forty years, and has fewer paupers than any other State in the Union. Of the 395,771 families dwelling in it, no fewer than 229,504 own their houses. One person in every nine of the population owns a motor car.

S.—People unable to get liquor will undoubtedly turn to drugs, which you must admit are far worse than alcohol.

P.—It is freely asserted that the use of drugs in prohibition areas has greatly increased. I have seen no proof of this. On the contrary, the importation of drugs is known to have decreased in Canada, where many districts have been dry for a long time. The Customs returns demonstrate this. The Harrison law in the United States has made it possible to keep a check on the number of drug addicts. These have not increased under prohibition.

S.—But you must admit that there have been more industrial troubles in America since prohibition was introduced than ever before.

P.—That may be, but the industrial troubles in Great Britain, France and Italy, where there is no restriction on the sale of liquor, have been far more serious. There is industrial unrest the world over—it is not due to prohibition, but to quite other causes. As far as the strikes in America are concerned, there has been a notable absence of that violence and bloodshed which formerly distinguished them. That, at any rate, is due to the fact that the strikers and strike-breakers could not get any liquor. Why even in Australia is it not customary to close all bars on election days, in order to avoid trouble? Surely there could be no more convincing illustration of the admitted unwisdom of allowing people to have liquor.

S.—All the same, Labour in England and America is overwhelmingly against prohibition.

P.—Mr. Samuel Gompers, the wonderful Jew, who has for so long led Labour in the United States, is an anti-prohibitionist, and declares that he has never seen drunks so drunkenly drunk, as the drunks he saw in Maine. That State was the first to go dry, and has always been held up to derision because of the sly-grog selling that went on there. It is quite true that a man gets worse drunk on badly distilled spirit than on good whiskey, and men admittedly get

badly drunk in Maine, but the fact remains that the State has prospered greatly, as compared with her wet neighbours. In New Jersey, for instance—a wet State—49.6 per cent. of the farms are mortgaged. In Maine only 26.6 per cent. still carry mortgages, and to-day, more farmers own their own farms in Maine than in any other State in the Union. The bank deposits show the real prosperity of the state, despite the habitual drunkards Mr. Gompers tells of. But Mr. Gompers speaks for himself, not for Labour. Of 22,000 labour unions in America, only 437 are against prohibition.

S.—That may be; but British Labour, by over 2,000,000 votes, has turned down prohibition.

P.—You refer to the Labour conference at Scarborough last June. Each trade union delegate present represented a large number of workers, and his vote was reckoned to be that of the number he represented. There were three proposals before the conference—prohibition, State purchase, and local option. The Scotch Trade Unions had adopted prohibition as a plank in their platform, and the prohibition amendment was proposed by the Glasgow delegation. It was defeated by 2,603,000 votes to 472,000. The proposal that the State should buy out the liquor interests (for £1,000,000,000), and nationalise the trade was defeated by 1,672,000 votes to 1,352,000. On behalf of the Independent Labour Party Mr. Philip Snowden then moved that "This conference, believing that the liquor traffic is a trade in respect of which the people as a whole must assert full and unfettered power in accordance with local opinion, demands for this purpose that the localities should have conferred upon them facilities to prohibit the sale of liquor within their own boundaries." This means, of course, local option. It was carried by 2,003,000 votes to 623,000.

[In our next issue I hope to publish a further conversation on the subject, and would be glad to answer any questions from readers in it.—H.S.]

The Skipper's Secret.

BY WILLIAM McMANN

THE skipper of the *Morning Star* took the binoculars from his eyes, wiped them carefully, and handed them over to the mate.

"I don't half like the look of it," he said, shoving his hands in his pockets and nodding towards the object of his suspicions. "See what you can make of it, Joe."

The mate put the glasses to his eyes and gazed fixedly in the direction indicated.

For a full minute he riveted his attention on the spot, took the glasses from his eyes, breathed on the lenses, wiped them with the ball of his thumb, and gazed again.

"Submarine's periscope!" he shouted. "What d'ye mean to do about it?"

"Do? Why keep our course, and if she starts shelling us, we'll launch the boat," replied the skipper briskly.

"Launch the boat!" sneered the mate. "Lot o' good that'll do, leaking like a sieve she is! Ho! we're in the soup, that's where we are. 'Ere, take the wheel; I'm goin' to see about my belongin's," and the skipper, too astonished at the outburst to protest, took the wheel, and, changing the helm slightly, headed the schooner to where the land lay like a long low bank of fog upon the ocean's brim.

"Hullo!" he burst out, suddenly, as the mate, lugging an enormous sea-bag, struggled up the companion-hatch, "where are ye goin' with that?"

"Goin' with it?" echoed the mate, tenderly rubbing his head, which had come into contact with the boom, "goin' with it? Why, into the boat, o' course. D'ye think I'm goin' to stop aboard this old hooker till the Germans send us to the bottom? Here you, Sam an' Bill, lend a hand here to get this boat overside."

"Ye leave the boat where it is!" roared the skipper threateningly.

"Sides, I thought she was a leaky old tub only five minutes ago?"

"Better a leaky boat, than no boat at all," retorted the mate, busy stripping the tarpaulin covering from off the boat; "and if ye'd any sense, ye'd stow yer jaw an' lend a hand too. 'Ere, Bill, gently does it; ye'll have the sides pulled out of her if ye ain't careful. Heave!" he cried. "There she is," he added, as the boat flopped into the water, sending a drenching shower of spray over them, making the skipper laugh uproariously.

"Call yourselves sailors, and handle a boat like a lot o' women!" he shouted derisively. "Looks as if ye'd been brought up on a barge, an' never saw blue water, 'cept in yer mother's wash-tub. What are ye goin' to do now ye have got her out?" he added inquiringly.

"Make for Slowport, and get the reward for informing about that 'ere submarine," the mate shouted back, fending the boat off with his hands. "Hadn't ye better come along an' share it? Matter of a hundred pounds ain't to be sneezed at these 'ard times—sides, ye'll be blowed if ye stops!"

"Reward!" echoed the skipper, in his excitement leaving the wheel for an instant, causing the schooner to fall off her course, and sending a drenching spray along her deck. "Reward, ye scoundrel! Come back to yer duty, Mister Mate, or, as sure as I'm skipper of this 'ere schooner, I'll have the law on the lot o' ye—ye dirty deserters!"

"We'll risk the law, rather than risk the submarine," replied the mate. "Are ye coming or are ye not?"

The skipper picked the glasses up from off the skylight, and trained them again on the object of his suspicions.

Long and anxiously he gazed, and when at last he laid the glasses down,

(Continued on page xii.)

CAN WHITE FOLK POPULATE THE NORTH?

The medical profession of Australasia has at last spoken. It is of opinion that, if white people will adjust their mode of living to tropical conditions, they may live, work and thrive in the Tropics as elsewhere. Medical men in Queensland have spent years investigating the effects of torrid heat and moisture on the human system, and they have found no reliable evidence to show that the climate itself necessarily brings ill health or degeneration. At the same time they have emphasised that white folk who live in the Tropics under the conditions prevailing in Northern Australia to-day are on the way to disaster.

The report thus summarised was delivered by a sub-committee to the Australasian Medical Congress at Brisbane on August 27th. Its bearing on the "White Australia" policy is important. People who favour the admission of coloured workers into Australia frequently argue that the development of the North cannot be brought about by whites alone, because of the harmful effects of the climate. The medical testimony has dealt a severe blow at that argument, yet not so severe as the exclusionists have made it appear. If we will change our habits, we may ensure our health. There are certain changes which the doctors themselves hope to bring about with the assistance of the State, and we may confidently expect further victories of science over the once formidable array of tropical diseases—yellow fever, malaria, cholera, hookworm, and the severe enteric troubles.

But when the doctors have done their best, far more remains to be done by every man, woman and child. If they will change their habits of eating and drinking, wear different clothes, and build different houses; if they will give up their pleasant vices and learn the principles of hygiene and practise them, then they may be healthy, even in the Tropics. But will they? Hitherto the white race has failed in every attempt

to populate the torrid regions; and the failure has not been entirely due to ignorance—probably more to unwillingness to bow to the well-known laws of health. Disease, even in the Temperate Zone, is, as Professor Osborne pointed out at the Brisbane Congress, largely due to personal habits. In the Tropics the need for restraint and certain healthful activities are greater; at the same time, there is greater attraction to wasting excess and languor. The doctors may be successful in solving the physiological problem of life in the Tropics; the social problem remains to be tackled.

Drs. A. Breinl and W. J. Young, of the Townsville Institute of Tropical Medicine, had previously published a detailed report of the investigations on which the conclusions of the Medical Congress were largely based. On one point they had found a fair agreement among observers regarding a deterioration of health among whites in the Tropics. Nervous troubles increased. They stated:—

The consensus of opinion gleaned from experiences in various parts of the Tropics seems to indicate that living in the Tropics affects the nervous system, and that neurasthenia seems to be more prevalent than in a temperate climate. It is, however, impossible to obtain definite figures and data, and most statements are only based on personal experience. In the light of this it would be interesting to ascertain whether a detailed examination of the functions of the nervous system would reveal any definite alterations, which, on account of their frequent incidence, would have to be considered an outcome of life in a tropical climate.

In another part of the report we read:—

Basil Price (1913), who for many years examined the causes of invaliding home of members of the Church Missionary Society, found that neurasthenic conditions were the cause of 25 per cent. of invalidity in most countries.

A perusal of the general literature on the Tropics confirms the fact that a complaint similar to neurasthenia is very prevalent amongst Europeans who have emigrated to the Tropics, but it is difficult to gauge how far climatic influences alone may be held

responsible, or what part is played by the altered conditions and habits of tropical life.

Nervous health and nervous disease, being closely related to the conditions of social life, one may venture a little discussion without trespassing on the doctors' domain. To the traveller this question immediately occurs: Why is the same prevalence of nervous distress and debility apparent at Peking as at Manila? Manila is typically tropical and enervating. Is it not possible that the nervous sufferings of whites in the Tropics arise from those conditions of life that are common to most tropical lands, and to other countries in which the services of coloured people are at command for all menial and physical toil? No one who has seen the manner of life of white women in the Far East is at all surprised when a nervous breakdown is reported.

"Missie" rises to a late breakfast, and spends the forenoon worrying, and often bickering, with the native servants. The native nurse must be carefully watched in her handling of the children; the houseboys will turn the books upside down after dusting them; the cook must be given elaborate instructions for the coming elaborate meals. All this work the average Australian housewife would do for herself—with more exertion, but less nervous strain. After forenoon tea there may be social correspondence to be received or sent. Then comes tiffin, of three main courses, and several side lines. After this exhausting programme the mistress is ready for her siesta. She rises to dress, with the assistance of a woman servant, then entertains, or is entertained, at afternoon tea. A drive probably follows, and possibly a game of tennis—but tennis is "so exhausting"; the weather may be too hot, or too wet. Returning home the lady must submit to a more elaborate dressing, and then take dinner, probably again entertaining or being entertained. Dinner is usually of five or six courses, with *hors d'œuvres*. Sometimes the lady will have a quiet evening, while the husband goes to the club,

but very frequently there is some social gaiety—bridge, theatre, or music, with cigarettes, and the usual cheering beverages, which will not have been lacking earlier in the day.

This picture would certainly not be true of the average woman in North Australia, where many are wearing their lives out with drudgery in the intense heat of the iron "humpies." But in New Guinea, according to Captain Lyng's book, white folk lead the typical life of "sweet do-nothing." It would be interesting to know how the people there would compare with those of Queensland in nervous health. Drs. Breinl and Young have recommended that a close study of the nerve conditions should be made. If it should be ascertained—as the surface appearance would indicate—that nervous trouble is not always a feature of tropical life, but is closely associated with the life of whites, who have unlimited coloured servants at their command, then this very disease would become an argument for the exclusion of coloured peoples. At least it could be so used. For white men have apparently not yet learned to live among their coloured fellows except under conditions that are harsh to the one race, enervating to the other, degrading to both.

The Brisbane Congress stressed the importance of diet in the Tropics. Alcohol was blamed for many of the ills. But on this point medical opinion is certainly not unanimous. Only a few weeks ago the medical officer of Papua gave the opposite opinion. He was inclined rather to attribute liver and other troubles to the gorging of heavy foods, practised to an extent hardly known in the cooler homelands of the whites. As to the kind of food most suitable for the hot climates, one learned little from the doctors. German and British doctors are greatly at variance in their tropical dietaries. The trouble is, as Drs. Breinl and Young have pointed out, that there is the widest divergence of opinion as to the amount of protein, such as meat, that is beneficial to the human system. The food of the peoples that live and thrive in the Tropics has

a very low proportion of protein, but whether white folk could become as hardy as these by adopting their diet of much cereal and fruit, and little or no meat, has yet to be tested.

The unsuitability of the present dwellings in Northern Australia was mentioned at the Brisbane meeting, and the subject had previously been fully dealt with by the doctors of the Institute of Tropical Medicine. Shanties built of corrugated iron are very common. The heat within these in the summer sun is more intense than in the outside air. The reason for their adoption is largely that the people who go to the North have no intention of staying, and so will not trouble to put up brick or concrete buildings. (Wood is out of the question in the white-ant regions.) Professor Osborne, of Melbourne University, recommended the cheap and durable clay (adobe) dwellings of the Mexicans. They would certainly diminish the discomfort very considerably.

Professor Osborne's address is especially enlightening, as it emphasises

the social factor in health, which plays so important a part in the Tropics. Speaking of the health of Australia as a whole, he said that, no matter what salutary machinery was evolved, there would ever remain the personal choice between indulgence and restraint, between folly and wisdom, between virtue and vice. If people would cultivate the simple virtue of cleanliness, there would be no hookworm. "It is a sad reflection that man's greatest enemies—disease, war, narcotism, superstition and tyranny—are mostly of his own creation."

The medical men at Brisbane have thrown the question of exclusionism in North Australia back to the people. They refuse to support the theory that white folk cannot populate the North. If exclusionism is right, there is no physiological reason why it should not be applied in Darwin and Townsville, as in Melbourne. But the fact that white folk do actually leave those vast territories a waste, remains to trouble us, and to emphasise the question: Are we right?

Japan is willing to make a gift to China of the unpaid balance of the Boxer indemnity, if China will agree to certain conditions. The most important stipulation is that Japanese teachers be engaged to teach young Chinese. China prefers not to have the gift on these terms, but at latest advices the matter was still under discussion.

Efforts are being made to re-establish trade between Austria and Jugoslavia. Many matters still require settlement, but the new State has definitely undertaken to supply Austria with grain; 15,000 tons of wheat and 40,000 tons of maize were to be delivered during July and August. In return Austria is to supply manufactured articles, and is also to lend the Jugo-Slavs locomotives for their railways.

The Swiss have been joining in the "auction of Austria," and imported during the first half of this year paintings in frames to the value of no less than 1,110,000 francs. From Czechoslovakia they purchased 3,386,000 francs' worth of oats, and from Jugoslavia, they got 2,000,000 francs' worth of pork, and 780,000 francs' worth of poultry.

Electors for the new *Folketing*, the Lower House, were held in Denmark last July. People in the recovered districts of Schleswig took part in the election for the first time. The new *Folketing* consists of 51 Liberals, 42 Socialists, 26 Conservatives, 10 Radicals, and four Labour men. A coalition Government is supported by Liberals and Conservatives.



At the end of July, there were 360,000 unemployed in Berlin.

The unfunded debt of the City of Berlin is stated to be 529,000,000 marks.

General Lerond is the President of the Plebiscite Commission in Upper Silesia.

At July 10th last, currency notes to the value of £362,277,000 were outstanding in Great Britain.

Of the 1,358,872 men lost by the French armies during the war, no fewer than 361,850 have never been traced.

The Italian Government has agreed to the re-establishment of German Consulates, which is not provided for in the Peace Treaty.

The profits of the 20 shipping companies of Great Britain were £6,743,830; no less than £1,773,703 more than in the previous year.

The Soldier Settlement Board acquired 69,000 acres of Indian Reserve lands in Western Canada, which has now been sold to soldier settlers.

In the recent census in Buda-Pest, the population was found to be 1,100,000. Before the war, the population of the capital was 880,000.

The initials of Mr. H. Spencer Wood, the author of the article in our August 21st issue of "Soviet Control in Australia," were erroneously given as A. S. W.

For the six months ending in October, 1919, 2,370,384 quintals of sugar were produced in Czecho-Slovakia. Of the total, 1,221,736 quintals were exported.

The salaries of civil servants in Prussia have been raised, to meet the increased cost of living. The amount required to provide the increases is 1,531,000,000 marks.

The first large shipment of horses from Denmark has been received in Russia. They went via Sweden. Russia in return is sending flax and flax seed to Denmark.

In June, Britain had 22,846 troops in Constantinople, 32,068 in Egypt, 23,014 in Palestine, 70,603 in Mesopotamia. The total cost of these forces is nearly £40,000,000 a year.

The price of coal in Paris in July was 460 francs per ton, as against 140 francs per ton a year ago. At present exchange, 460 francs is £10; at pre-war rates, it would be £18.

At present immigrants are pouring into Canada at the rate of 18,000 per month; 12,000 of these new settlers come from Great Britain, the balance from the United States.

The Italian Parliament has approved the Government Bill for the confiscation of all excess war profits. The Italian Government does more than merely rant against the profiteer!

During 1919, 366 mines were working in Czecho-Slovakia, providing employment for 110,233 workers. 275,000,000 quintals of coal were produced in the twelve months.

On July 1st, the Czecho-Slovak Government withdrew the prohibition on the export of cotton, wine, vegetable fibres, and minerals, with the exception of gold, silver and coal.

The German mining companies which have relinquished their holdings in the Saar Valley have been compensated, and are using the capital thus received to enlarge their business elsewhere.

The New Zealand Government has accepted the gift of the cruiser *Chatham*, but it has been explained that this does not necessarily imply the adoption of the Australian policy of a separate fleet.

China has offered compensation for the recent murder of an American missionary, Rev. Reimert, by riotous soldiers at Yochow. The amount is 45,000 yen, or about £7500 at present exchange.

The jewels of Gaby Deslys were recently sold in Paris, and realised the sum of 2,303,900 francs. Most of the money so obtained is to be used to relieve distress amongst the poor of Marseilles.

The Minister of Agriculture in Argentina announced in June last there were 813,000 tons of wheat available for exportation; 637,000 tons of the 1919-1920 crop had been exported at that time.

Switzerland is borrowing 30,000,000 dollars in the United States. This loan carries interest at eight per cent., and the Swiss had to pay American financiers nearly four per cent. commission for floating it.

Some of the Yorkshire iron companies have arranged for large deliveries of Lorraine iron ore, which formerly went to German foundries. Cargoes are to be despatched up the Rhine, and thence to England via Rotterdam.

A provisional commercial agreement has been signed between Czecho-Slovakia and Germany, by which the latter allows the export of dyes and machinery, and provides 200 trucks daily to carry goods from one country to the other.

Four of the leaders of the "Soviet" strike in Winnipeg, three of whom are still in prison, have been elected to the Manitoba Legislature. They are F. H. Dixon, Rev. Ivens, J. Queen, G. Armstrong. Dixon headed the poll at Winnipeg.

Profits of breweries in Great Britain last year (there are 94 of them) amounted to £8,075,737, being £1,219,363 more than in the previous year. Although only half the profits were distributed, shareholders got a return of 12 per cent.

The Japan Hydro-electric Company, with a capital of £5,000,000, has been compelled to suspend its developmental work in consequence of the slump. All its labourers have been dismissed, and only 60 of its staff of 240 experts have been retained.

Woolgrowers of New Zealand have donated a fund of £250,000 out of their excess profits from the wool pool to be used for the benefit of dependants of members of the British Navy and mercantile marine who were killed or disabled during the war.

The Czecho-Slovak Government has fixed the price of meat at 17 kronen the kilo; that is, roughly, 7s. a lb. at the old exchange; at present exchange the price works out at 1s. 5d. a lb. A loaf of bread costs 4.62 kronen, and a kilogram of flour 4.7 kronen.

The Minister of Justice some time ago introduced a Bill into the National Assembly in Buda-Pest providing for the corporal punishment of profiteers. The maximum punishment for a first offence was 25 lashes. The law is to lapse automatically in a year's time.

The German States have given up their right to levy income tax in favour of the Federal Government. In consideration of this, they receive from the Federal Government a proportionate amount of the Federal income tax collected; in the case of Prussia, this amounts to 2,413,000,000 marks this year.

The first permanent tribunal to be established by the League of Nations is the International Court, which is to control of the Saar Basin. The President of this is Professor Nippold—a Swiss. Most of the judges of the Court have been selected from neutral nations. It will have complete judicial authority in the district.



Hungarians Coming Home.

The International Red Cross has informed the Hungarian Government that 60,000 war prisoners from Siberia will shortly be arriving via Stettin and Passau. The German Government has undertaken to provide them with rations on the ten days' journey from Rawa to Passau. When they arrive at that river port, they complete their journey on the Danube. The Hungarian Government has been asked to provide the clothes required. The Hungarian prisoners, who have been collected in Turkistan, are to be transported across the Black Sea, and up the Danube to Budapest. The Hungarian war prisoners still in South Russia are to be repatriated via Kiev and Lemberg. Those in Eastern Siberia are returning home via Vladivostock.

Solving the Riddle of the Sphinx.

Professor Reisner of the Hoboken University, U.S.A., has resumed his investigations of the Sphinx at Memphis, which were interrupted by the war. In 1914 he discovered an opening in the gigantic statue which, when cleared of sand, gave entrance to the head. His explorations were confined to the head, breasts and feet. He found a temple inside the colossal figure, in which was a statue to King Mona. This temple is connected by a long corridor with a chamber in one of the feet. This is 18 metres long, and 4 metres wide. He found many inscriptions (some of them in gold), along the passages. The Sphinx has guarded its secret for 8000 years; but Professor Reisner hopes that further investigations will solve the riddle which has for so long baffled the world.

Industry at a Standstill in Germany.

German gas manufacturers recently complained that their industry is practically at a standstill owing to the heavy tribute of coal which Germany is obliged to make to France. They complain that the French demand not only the prescribed quantity, but insist on having coal best suitable for making gas. They also complain that, contrary to the terms of the Peace Treaty, the Allies compelled Germany to send 206,000 tons of coal to Poland, and 100,000 tons to Czecho-Slovakia during the month of May. The Czecho-Slovaks were supposed to send an equal quantity of brown coal to Germany, but failed to do so. They stated also that the Allied Commission in Silesia had announced that the quantity to be delivered to the Poles was to be increased to 400,000 tons a month. This, they said, made the carrying on of German industries impossible.

"The Grave of Political Reputations."

Although the Irish Secretaryship is usually described as "the grave of political reputations," it is interesting to find that of 46 Chief Secretaries since the Union, no fewer than six (Wellington, Melbourne, Stanley, Peel, Campbell-Bannerman and Balfour) have subsequently become Prime Ministers. Of the remaining 40, one became a Speaker of the House of Commons, two Viceroy of India, and two Lords Lieutenant of Ireland. Other men who had brilliant careers, after being Chief Secretaries, were the late Duke of Devonshire, Lord St. Aldwyn (better known as Sir Michael Hicks-Beach), Mr. W. H. Smith, Sir George Trevelyan, Mr. Walter Long, Viscount Morley, and

Viscount Bryce. During the same period, there were 23 Lords Lieutenant. Only five of these, and six of the Irish Secretaries, were of Irish birth or antecedents. When Lord Castlereagh was appointed, Lord Cornwallis, who was Lord Lieutenant at the time, said that it gave him great satisfaction, adding, "Although I admit the propriety of the general rule against the appointment of Irishmen, yet he is so very unlike an Irishman, I think he has a claim to an exemption in his favour." It is a curious illustration of the genius of the English Government that the man who is responsible for the government of Ireland still retains the title of Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, an apparently subordinate position. Formerly, the position was merely a sinecure, and in many cases was a life appointment. Sir Arthur Wellesley (Duke of Wellington) retained the office during his campaigns in Spain and Portugal, employing a Member to explain in the House of Commons such Irish business as might arise during his absence. Very little explanation appears to have been needed.

The German Elections.

The voting at the last general election in Germany has been carefully analysed in the German papers. Perhaps the most interesting figures given deal with the manner in which the women cast their votes. In certain towns and districts, the voting papers of men and women are kept separate. This is the case in Cologne, where 119,263 men voted and 111,364 women. The Centre (Catholic) Party secured 49,154 women's votes, against 32,964 men's; 18,245 men polled for the Independent candidates, but these secured the votes of only 8,973 women. The Socialist candidates were favoured by the men, getting 36,295 votes from them, and only 24,134 from the women. In 10 of the districts in Hanover, where the lists are kept separate, the number of women voters exceeded the men by 1500, but the voting in this case was fairly level, suggesting that the women voted for the same candidate as their men-folk. Taking the Socialist groups

and Nationalists groups, we find that the former polled no fewer than 3,047,120 fewer at the last election than at the previous one in 1919, and that the Nationalists polled 1,881,345 fewer. It is somewhat surprising to find that the number of votes cast this year was less than last—25,719,067 to 29,929,041. The Communists, who ran no candidates in 1919, secured 438,199 votes at the last election, but elected only two of their candidates. A new coalition has been made under the present Chancellor, Fehrenbach, but the old coalition came back from the election only 222 strong, as against 329 when the appeal to the electors was made. As the number of seats was increased from 421 to 460, the coalition was in an actual minority of 9. The Advanced Socialists, however, were not sufficiently numerous to command a majority, and found it impossible to secure any allies.

Demolishing London Churches.

The agitation against the destruction of churches in London continues. The Commission appointed by the Bishop of London advocated the demolition of no fewer than 19 of the 47 Anglican churches situated in the City. This decision is described as "vandalism," and an "outrage upon art and history." The 19 churches doomed to destruction are:—

All Hallows, Lombard Street. All Hallows, London Wall. St. Botolph, Aldgate (except Tower). St. Katherine Coleman. St. Clement, Eastcheap. St. Dunstan-in-the-East (except Tower). St. Magnus the Martyr (except Tower). St. Mary-at-Hill. St. Mary Woolnoth. St. Michael, Cornhill (except Tower). St. Alban, Wood Street. St. Anne and St. Agnes. St. Botolph, Aldersgate. St. Dunstan-in-the-West (except Tower). St. Mary, Aldermanbury. St. Michael Royal (except Tower). St. Nicholas Cole Abbey. St. Stephen, Coleman Street. St. Vedast (except Tower).

The Commissioners say that the 29 remaining churches leave ample provision for services and religious purposes of all kinds, and that, as time goes on, and with better rearrangement, a still further reduction can be effected. They point out that not as many Londoners live in the City as in the days when these churches were

erected, and that the square mile in which they are to be found, which, during the daytime has a population of perhaps 1,000,000, accommodates only 13,000 residents, so that, even if all of these went to church, the 29 would not be filled to overflowing. They propose that, in seven cases, the church towers should be left standing. A bank has offered no less than £500,000 for the site of one church, and it is expected that the total value of the 19 church properties will reach £1,695,620. This sum is, of course, to be devoted to church purposes. It is admitted, even by those who oppose the destruction most strongly, that the churches are empty, but they declare that they are of historic interest, or artistic value, and that they should not, therefore, be destroyed.

The Cup Lipton Covets.

The cup which, for the fourth time, Sir Thomas Lipton has failed to win, is a trophy, the original cost of which was 50 guineas. It was offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron for a particular race in 1851. The cup was won by the American schooner, *America*, and it is now known as the "America's Cup." Originally given by an English Club, it actually became the property of the American crew, and was presented by them as a challenge cup to the New York Club, in 1857. The gift was accompanied by a deed, prescribing the terms and conditions under which challengers could compete for it. The schooner *America* did not cross the Atlantic with the object of capturing this particular cup, but went over, as its owners wished the United States to do something, which would attract attention in England whilst the World's Fair was being held in London, in 1851. She took 20 days to reach Havre from Sandy Hook, and, after being refitted in the French port, proceeded to England. She was met in the Channel by the crack English cutter, *Laverock*, which was, however, hopelessly outdistanced in the run to Cowes. So badly was she worsted, in fact, that the Americans

could obtain no matches for several weeks. The *America* was, however, entered for the Royal Yacht Squadron's open regatta, the course of which was round the Isle of Wight. Queen Victoria eagerly waiting news of the match was told that the *America* had triumphed. She inquired the name of the boat which finished second. "Alas, Your Majesty," was the reply, "there is no second." It was not until 1870 that English yachtsmen attempted to regain the trophy, but the "*Cambria*," which crossed the Atlantic for the purpose, failed to win any races. In those days, any number of yachts competed, and the *Cambria* finished eighth. It was not until Lord Dunraven took over *Valkyrie II.* that the Americans raced one yacht only. The recent contest is the first occasion on which an English yacht won as many as two out of the five races.

Great Britain's Debt.

The debt of the United Kingdom now stands at £7,840,000,000. Of this £1,279,000,000 is external. The chief creditor abroad is the American Government. The British Government now owes it about 4,000,000,000 dollars, which, at pre-war exchange, would be about £800,000,000; at present it is over £1,000,000,000. This debt was not raised as a loan repayable in a certain number of years, but is composed of credits given Great Britain to enable her to purchase American munitions and goods. It is payable on demand. This, as English financial papers point out, is a somewhat formidable pistol which the Americans can hold at the head of the British Government if they wish. The suggestion has been made in influential quarters in Great Britain that the Americans should cancel this debt altogether. They have not done this, but have consented to forego the interest for three years. Great Britain has not extended the same generous treatment to the countries which owe her money. It is proposed that the American Government should fund the British debt into a 40 year bond, with an option of earlier re-

demption. The amount owed Great Britain by the Dominions is £119,500,000.

The World's Shipping Tonnage.

Before the war, Germany had over 5,000,000 tons of shipping; 4,716,000 tons were taken from her by the Peace Treaty, and she is left with 419,000 tons only. The confiscation of her fishing fleet has complicated the problem of feeding the people, as fish supplies are not now available. The total steam tonnage of the world is now 53,905,000 tons; no fewer than 8,501,000 tons more than in 1914. Despite this huge increase, freights remain six times as high as they were before the war. This seems to prove the truth of the assertion that it is not lack of tonnage which keeps freights up, but lack of competition. One result of wiping the German competitor off the sea is that we have to pay millions of pounds more to British shipping companies than they are really justified in asking for! The United States has increased its tonnage by 10,379,000, and this raised its percentage of the total from 4.7 six years ago to 24 per cent. to-day. The percentage of Great Britain in the same period has dropped from 43.4 to 35.1. In the interest of the world in general, it is to be hoped that the new American tonnage will soon provide that competition, the lack of which enables the British companies to prey on the rest of the world, including the Dominions.

A £54,500,000 Deficit.

The deficit in the British railways this year is £54,500,000. In order to find this sum, the representatives of the railway companies propose that passenger revenue should be made to supply 40 per cent., and freight revenue, 60 per cent. They suggest that passenger fares should be increased by 40 per cent., which would make them just double what they were before the war began, and that the freight rates should be increased still more. The deficit on the Irish railways, which has to be met is £2,200,000. The recommendation in this case is that passenger fares should be raised by a third, and that the price

of season tickets should be increased 75 per cent.

War Stores in Great Britain.

Eighty-three per cent. of the surplus stores purchased out of loan money by the British Government during the war have now been sold. They realised £261,000,000. This money was not used to pay off debt, but was regarded as revenue by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Since the Armistice, the Government has been selling raw materials which it purchased during, and as a result of, the war. To date, the sale of these has realised £253,000,000. A further £300,000,000 is expected to be obtained before all stores and raw materials are disposed of.

French Trade With Germany.

According to statistics published in Paris, the French purchased goods in Germany during 1919 to the value of 590,695,000 francs. Of this total, purchases in the occupied territories accounted for 206,894,000 francs. During the same period, France sold to Germany goods to the value of 1,283,968,000 francs. Nearly the whole of these goods went to the occupied territories, 300,000,000 francs' worth only going to the rest of Germany. No doubt, huge quantities of French goods were smuggled across the Rhine, and the published statistics certainly show that the Germans were justified in their bitter protests about the "hole on the West," through which their gold was flowing, and by which prohibited luxuries were being sent into Germany.

The Future of Teschen.

Many of the municipalities in the Teschen district, which are at present under Polish domination, have refused to prepare the electoral lists for the coming plebiscite. The International Commission has, therefore, sent sub-commissions to those districts, charged with the task of completing the lists. These commissions will have the protection of Allied soldiers, and refusal to provide the information required will be punished by a loss of the franchise when the plebiscite is taken.

THE CHARLES SCHWAB OF GERMANY.

Hugo Stinnes was practically unknown to the Allied world until the Spa Conference in July last. There he made an address which has never been fully reported here, but which caused the greatest excitement at the time, and was denounced most vigorously in Allied newspapers. He began what is called "his provocative address," by saying that everyone who was not suffering from "the disease of victory" realised that the proposals put forward by the Allied Powers made a settlement of the present crisis impossible. To an interjection made by M. Delacroix, the President, Mr. Stinnes coolly replied: "I speak in the name of right and in the name of courtesy." He went on to declare that the French mines had not been destroyed in a spirit of vandalism, but because of legitimate military necessity, and ended his discourse by stating: "We cannot accept the conditions you impose on us, even if you occupy the Ruhr district with your black troops, against the use of which as police every white man and every German must revolt. These measures will only hasten revolution, and bring about general ruin. They will terrorise industry, inflame the working classes, and perpetuate a state of affairs which otherwise would disappear within three years. They will provoke German troubles, the consequence of which will damage France and the whole of Europe. Right is not on your side."

The American Review of Reviews has collected information about this redoubtable iron master, who, it says, has been described as the Charles Schwab of Germany, with a power similar to that of Lord Northcliffe in England. His career has in it many incidents that remind one strikingly of similar occurrences in the lives of Northcliffe and Schwab. Whatever else may be true of him, there is general agreement that he is to-day the greatest industrial power in Germany. He is the owner of coal mines, steel mines, river and

ocean-going fleets, electrical plants, gas plants, coal by-products, hotels, paper factories, and no fewer than 64 newspapers. Before he was 30 he had made himself felt in industrial circles in Germany. He did not begin at the bottom of the ladder, but inherited some mines which were, however, only moderately prosperous. Soon after coming into his inheritance, he associated himself with August Thyssen, the German steel and mining magnate of that day. At the same time Stinnes began to buy up poorly paying mines and reorganise them. He was successful in this process, but it was not until after he had broken off business relations with Thyssen that he attained real industrial power.

The great advantage Stinnes had, and still has, over all the other leaders in industry in Germany, is his ability to see things as a whole. The possession of coal alone was not sufficient for him. He was anxious to build steel mills. That meant the buying up of iron ore mines. His first operations in the co-ordination of industries began, as far as could be learned, in 1904, when he bought up the coal and iron interests in the Deutsch-Luxemburg regions. He was at that time a man of 34. The mines were then worth 20,000,000 marks. Seven years later their value had risen to 100,000,000 marks. The following year they were quoted at 130,000,000 marks.

"One industry," the *Neues Wiener Journal* goes on to say, "made way for another. The iron mines were bought up first. It was then discovered that there was insufficient coke to run them. This led Stinnes to buy up a coal mine in the outlying district. It then developed that he had too much coal. He decided that a steel mill was the outlet for this superfluous tonnage, and proceeded to gain control of steel plants. His operations grew wider and wider, until it seemed as though in time he would gain control of the entire coal and iron output of the country."

"The one thing Stinnes continually held before his colleagues was the idea that the ore industry was the greatest possession of Germany. He held that there was no half-way measure about it; it either had to be

developed to its greatest extent, or else let alone entirely."

In 1911 it was stated that Stinnes alone controlled over 1,000,000 tons of steel. His coal tonnage ran up into 5,000,000 for hard coal, 1,000,000 for coke, and 600,000,000 for briquettes.

Stinnes has been compared to American leaders of industry in that his method is not one of amassing a fortune in money, but rather in constantly using his credit to start new operations. "Expansion, rather than intensive sole control of one organisation, is his aim. His coal operations reach out over the entire country, from the French boundary to the Russian, and all the way down to the Mediterranean."

As soon as Stinnes had assumed control of vast mining operations, he started to build himself a fleet of ships to carry the coal and ore from his mines to the cities and ports, where he could get the best prices. Before long he had won a foothold in several of the big steamship companies of Germany, including the Hamburg-American Line. He then set out to control the electrical power of important mining districts. He used electricity in the operation of his coal mines, and also sold power to the cities and country districts. In territory where he was operating, he gradually gained control of the tramways, organising a company with a capital of about 40,000,000 marks. In course of time he had absorbed a total mileage of about 250. He then proceeded to gain control of the street railways of Mannheim, one of the great industrial centres.

During the war Stinnes became very active in the exploitation of Belgium. In an article devoted to him in *Vorwärts*, the leading organ of the Majority Socialists, there is the following account of his part in the Belgian transactions:

Stinnes's share in the work of liquidation in occupied Belgium forms a particularly interesting chapter in the development of his huge capital. Originally designed as a means of retaliation against economic warfare, this measure soon developed into something exclusively calculated to throw billions into the lap of German big business. Three Essen companies were formed for the exploitation of this opportunity, the Industrial Company,

1916; the Traffic Company, 1916; and the Real Estate Company, 1916. All three were creations of the Rhenish Westphalian big capitalists; their principal stockholders being the Friedrich Krupp Company, the Phoenix Company, the Good Hope Smelting Company, and, first of all, the German-Luxemburg Mining Company, the firm of Hugo Stinnes. He was the intellectual leader of the undertaking.

These three companies understood how to persuade the government to give them a practical, though not a formal, monopoly in buying up the Belgian businesses about to be liquidated. That is, they received a sort of a first bid privilege. The Essen trust, guided by Mr. Stinnes, knew how to shield itself against outsiders in a skilful way. Besides the gas, water and electric plants, dockyards, etc., Mr. Stinnes had in view, as his main object, the coal fields of the Campine, a goal worth billions. Of course, all these acquisitions were most closely bound up with the plans for the annexation of Belgium. Once the iron and steel industry got its grip on property in Belgium worth billions, like the coal fields of the Campine, they could throw this fact into the scales in order to justify the annexation of Belgium on economic grounds.

For the gas, water and electric plants taken over by it, the Stinnes concern paid the extremely low price of 28,000,000 marks. The previous director of compulsory liquidation had estimated their value at 48,000,000 marks. An opinion given by Hempel, the director of the Electric Supply Company in Berlin, put the value at 32,000,000. Although this estimate exceeded the price actually paid by 4,000,000, Stinnes and his companions must have been very well satisfied with it, for after the delivery of the property, Mr. Hempel was made Brussels director of the company, at a salary of 100,000 marks. The low price paid was justified on the ground of the alleged great risk. As a matter of fact, there was no risk whatever, for according to the agreement the purchase price was to be paid through the depositing of a sole bill of exchange with the Maritime Bank in Berlin, due six months after the conclusion of peace. Therefore, it was arranged for in advance that the compensation for the taking over of the property was not to come into the hands of the original Belgian owners before the decision of arms had been made.

A writer in the *Staats-Zeitung*, of New York, expresses the opinion that Stinnes is just the kind of leader that

Germany needs at this time. It is suggested that he is a man who has the rare faculty of being able to see his country in the proper industrial per-

spective. Furthermore, he controls great wealth, and that is regarded as the prime requisite for the reconstruction of Germany.

A BISHOP ON THE BLACK MAN'S BURDEN.

"Africa and the Blight of Commercialism" is the title of an article by the Bishop of Zanzibar, in *The Nineteenth Century*. It is a plea for the protection of the African peoples. In calm, restrained language, the Bishop tells of the dangers the natives have to face from the greed and lust of white men. He looks to the League of Nations for protection. While he declares that the League up to the present has given no sign of fulfilling its pledges—has, in fact, flouted these pledges as scraps of paper, and "betrayed the African," still he calls upon the nations that founded the League, and especially Britain and the United States, to live up to the ideals they professed during the war.

The first essential to the protection of the subject races is, in the Bishop's opinion, a system of inspection by an international committee responsible to the League. He confesses that this suggestion is sure to be unpopular with Europeans; none the less, he urges it. His expectation of opposition has already been fulfilled: Objection has been raised to the proposed obligation upon mandatory Powers to present annual reports to the League—a very mild form of inspection. Here in Australia the common argument has been put forward—we are above suspicion; why should anyone inquire what we are doing? But the Bishop appeals especially to those who have nothing to hide—those who "put justice and equity before commercial success"—to support his demand for inspection:

For, in strict fact, no body of men who are anxious to become rich can be at all times trusted to act justly toward those on whose labour their riches depend. There is an ever-present danger that some aggressive clique of settlers, or some one over-keen official, will do, in the interests of commercial policy, what is really harmful to the workers. In Europe we have often found

this to be true. How much more likely is it to be true in Africa.

If I am challenged to illustrate my meaning, I would quote the recent determined effort on the part of some settlers to deprive the Kikuyu people of their land, and the unveiled desire of so many settlers to see introduced some form of compulsory labour on private plantations, or I might instance the Rhodesian legislation that makes the native tenure of land so precarious, and places African natives at so great a disadvantage when compared with European immigrants.

Loss of land and conscription for labour are constantly threatening, and can only be prevented by an international committee of inspection. The two dangers are intertwined, for it is often by depriving the natives of their land that white settlers and politicians compel them to seek employment on the plantations. The Bishop examines the whole problem, not without sympathy for the settler needing labour, but with a determination to oppose compulsion.

A great deal of nonsense is talked about the duty of Africans working for any stray European who chooses to arrive in Africa, and set up for himself as a planter. Plantations are made without adequate consideration of the local supply of labour, with the result that men are brought from a distance to lead an unnatural life in a camp, to the destruction of the neighbourhood's morals, and their own health, with quite disastrous results upon the birth-rate in their own village when they return home.

It is wrong that men should not be persuaded to work on neighbouring European plantations. It is also wrong that such plantations should be worked at the expense of the morals and birth-rate of the tribes concerned. Further, it is bad policy. It tends to diminish the amount of labour available. It sacrifices the future to the present. The German officials were keenly alive to this.

The need for imitating the Germans in this regard is emphasised by the Bishop in view of the terrible loss of life suffered by the young men of East Africa, in assisting the British forces in the local fight against the German

Colonial Army. The African casualties have not been published. "If only the British public knew the full tale of death and suffering bravely endured by Africans, it might, perhaps, be moved to sympathy with them. But the figures have not been published. They are terrible."

The Bishop seeks to correct those who imagine that the emancipation and protection of African workers must proceed on the same lines as in Western lands. He urges Western Socialists not to disturb the African's mind with talk of self-government, but rather to try to safeguard the communist Socialism that the African already enjoys—a Socialism which is menaced by "the blight of commercialism." Our notions of self-government, he says, are unintelligible to the Africans, and the attempt to apply them means placing clever and unscrupulous Africans in positions, which they use "for acquiring money and wives, and scoring off one's enemies." On the other hand—

The African is the best kind of communist. Private property exists, but not as of individual right. A man's family or clan have every conceivable claim on him; and at marriage his wife enters his clan, or he enters hers, according as the tribal custom demands. The whole clan holds together. The village, in certain matters, acts together, and works together. Individualism, as we know it, does not exist.

Christianity, while emphasising the individual relation with God, need not, and, where due care is taken, does not, break the social ties between the man and his family. But commercial life tends very much to snap them; the lust of possession developing individualism in a very marked degree. If then we allow our present commercial practice to become normal in Africa, we shall altogether smash the social life of the people. Also, we shall force them to go through the whole bitter experience of our own Labour world that the last 200 years have seen. Is it impossible to keep sweating out of Africa? Is it impossible to develop co-operative agriculture in those districts at least that are not suited to European residence?

What a fall from grace in this last sentence! The Bishop sees hope for the salvation of the African peoples through the development of their "present Socialism." But, in the face of the selfishness of the European's policy of

exploitation, he dares no more than to suggest that the least desirable regions should be given over to an experiment of such vital importance to the natives' welfare. One is tempted to contrast this attitude with that of the early monks in Britain, Ireland, Germany and elsewhere, who went out with hoe and plough to teach the people to be better farmers—and Christians.

In view of the perils arising from any break of the family ties, the Bishop gives a warning against certain schemes of ardent educationists. He opposes the bringing of African boys from the villages to study in centralised technical colleges.

Another danger that would not appear to the casual observer is the presence of American negroes. These people, he says, are not regarded by the natives as their fellows, but as black Europeans. Their advanced education would give them opportunities of establishing an ascendancy over the Africans that would work untold harm. The negroes, however, might do valuable work as advisers to the proposed committee of inspection.

On the sex relations of the white and coloured peoples in Africa the Bishop speaks candidly. We reproduce the whole of his remarks, since herein we find pictured in intense relief the whole problem of the white man's domination, and the black man's burden:—

Sex Questions.—It is a common saying among South and East African settlers that it is best to "keep the native at arm's length." "Be just: be self-respecting—and keep him at arm's length." "So they all say. But in strict fact, the "colour" question has been solved in favour of the European's lust. African women are not kept at arm's length. I do not wish to exaggerate. There are not a few Europeans in East Africa who live clean lives. (Of South Africa I have no first-hand knowledge.) But I do not think it can be denied that the relations between white men and black women have been such in East Africa that wherever Europeans live in any numbers, African women expect to find a profit. The results are as bad as bad can be. Not only is the European deprived of the prestige that he ought to have maintained—his conduct causes serious discontent among the African men. I do not wish

to be misunderstood. No African man despises a European who takes, and keeps, as his wife, a black woman. On the contrary, he regards him as friendly to his people. Nor does he resent it if the European, on finally leaving the country, "divorces" his woman, for, in so doing, he merely follows native custom. It is the prostitution of African women and girls that is so serious a stumbling-block.

It seems to me right that such a Commission as I have in mind should face this question. It should collect facts, and be able at least to advise the various governments as to the best lines of action in so difficult a matter. It should be in a position to give counsel as to the best way of protecting women and girls from the lust of Europeans. It should decide on what terms a European may marry an African woman, and in what circumstances he may put her away. It should be able to speak with authority upon the probable results of these mixed unions, considered from the point of view of the children. It should advise as to the education of the children, and see that provision is made for it. (Personally, I would have them brought up among their mother's people.) And it should devise adequate means for preserving African family life from unwelcome interference on the part of foreigners, whether European or Asiatic.

This may sound strange advice from a

bishop! Let me say that I do not regard Europe as, in practice, a Christian continent. And I am *here* pleading for the welfare of the African, not for the eternal salvation of the European. It is no good shutting one's eyes to facts—even though one be a bishop!

I am more troubled than I can say at the solution of the colour problem European lust has devised. Europe embraces the African woman, and calls the African man "a damned nigger." I do not think this can go on for another generation. I feel sure that the man will some day begin to show his resentment. A wise League of Nations will depute men to deal with things as they are, while as yet they lie open to treatment.

Arising out of this, I personally should welcome continual watchfulness on the part of inspectors with regard to the salaries paid to European officials and commercial men in our colonies. Every young man ought to know that he will be in a position to marry within, say, a couple of years of reaching the colony. Many a man goes to pieces because he feels he can never hope to marry one of his own race. And in going to pieces he not only betrays his own ideals—he does most serious disservice to his country, and grievous harm to his African neighbours. In fact, he becomes a failure all round. And, religion apart, I do not see what else we are to expect in the majority of cases as long as Europeans are underpaid.

HUNGARY'S PLIGHT.

Dr. C. Hagberg Wright contributes an article to *The Contemporary Review* entitled "Hungary's Appeal to England," in which he sets forth the tragic position of that country owing to its dismemberment by the Supreme Council. He states that the Czechs are now in possession of districts which contain two-thirds of the Hungarian mines, furnaces, iron and steel works, the other one-third being now in the possession of the Roumanians and Serbians. The sugar factories which, in times of peace, used to supply England and India with sugar, are now closed because 70 per cent. of the beetroot producing districts have passed under Czech rule. The breweries of Hungary are idle, because the barley supply from Slovakia, formerly part of Hungary, has been cut off. For the same reason, paper mills, worsted factories and other industrial works have had to be closed down. One of the greatest sources of wealth of Hungary in pre-war days was timber,

but her forest lands, averaging 16,000,000 acres, have been almost entirely occupied by the Czecho-Slovaks and the Roumanians.

Should Hungary be broken up to the extent proposed by the Treaty of Peace, not only would she suffer irreparably, but the States which are to share in the partition would acquire lands of a character with which they are well provided already. Thus, wide areas of Hungary producing cereals and maize would be joined to Jugo-Slavia and to Roumania, and the same fate would befall the sheep and cattle-raising centres, though Jugo-Slavia already exports lard in large quantities, and Roumania is rich in wool. In short, Hungary will be crippled beyond recovery, and her position as a buffer State rendered nugatory. It is furthermore pleaded in her behalf that her political boundaries are less the result of armed conquest than the outcome of natural conditions. The frontiers of Hungary are formed by ranges of mountains and the course of rivers. The various races congregated in the circle of the Carpathians and along the banks of the Danube are drawn together by economic necessity.

Dr. Wright blames the Supreme

Council too much, as it was perfectly obvious from the Roumanian invasion of Hungary that the Council had little real authority over the people who were determined to dismember Hungary. Its attempts to induce the Roumanians to withdraw behind the frontier, plotted for them in Paris, were quite unsuccessful, and even yet the future of various portions of what was once Hungary has still to be settled. He urges that Great Britain should befriend the Hungarians, asserting that should England miss the opportunity thus placed before her, Hungary will inevitably fall to Germany, and he appeals to English cupidity as follows:—

Five years of war, two revolutions, and the fatal influences of Bolshevism have had a disastrous effect on conditions in Hungary. Without outside help the country will be unable to take that place in the newly-constructed Europe which its natural advantages appear to assure to it. If England, instead of ruining Hungary's economic future by dividing it up on some theory of giving independence to all the different nationalities inhabiting it, would try to put Hungary on its feet again (if necessary providing safeguards for the protection of the Slav populations), she would not only protect Europe from German or Russian schemes of oppression, but incidentally provide herself with immense opportunities for developing her trade in Eastern Europe.

Buda-Pest, he says, is the natural headquarters from which the traffic on the Danube should be directed. This is admitted by Admiral Troubridge, the Chairman of the International Commission charged with the control of the traffic on the river. The Hungarians have always endeavoured to develop the Danube as a great arterial waterway, but were thwarted by the Austrians, who did everything in their power to prevent the Danube being made navigable.

The Danube has become essential to the trade of Europe. Germany, partly from fear of a future blockade, partly because the needs of Southern Germany could never be entirely met by means of the Northern ports, looks eagerly to the Danube. The Rhine-Danube, the Oder-Rhine, and the Elbe Danube canal projects are being discussed; sooner or later they are sure to be materialised. Further south, the Theiss-Danube and the Save-Danube canal schemes are equally certain to be carried out. With the

construction of this vast network of waterways, the Danube will become a trade-channel of incalculable value. The destruction of railroads occasioned by the war has also enhanced the importance of river navigation.

The present capacity of the great river is 3,000,000 tons per annum; this could be increased to 21,000,000 tons if the bed of the river were deepened sufficiently to enable vessels of 3000 tons' burden to come up to Buda-Pest.

In conclusion, Dr. Wright states that in the attempt to give self-determination to the small nationalities, the whole economic condition of Hungary is being upset, and the country is being dismembered in such a way as to make it bankrupt, and to destroy all hope of future prosperity for an indefinite time. He is able to demonstrate that the Hungarians were forced into the war, and were kept in it by Germany, which quickly gained such a firm hold over the military and economic resources of Hungary, that her free action was entirely at an end. Hungary consistently endeavoured to secure the protection of England, but, having failed altogether to get it, was bound to seek the support of her nearer neighbours against the dangers which were threatening her existence, and could follow no other course than to remain in partnership with Austria, satisfied with a sort of sham independence.

Under that partnership Hungary had no control over the army, nor over foreign politics; and the terror of Russia, while it helped to keep her under the yoke of Austria, tended also to increase the ascendancy of German influence. Hungary's present terrible plight clearly shows that the fear of the Slav danger which prompted Count Andrássy to seek protection in an alliance with Germany, was a well-grounded apprehension, heightened by the understanding arrived at between England and Russia in the reign of Edward VII.—an agreement by which England gave Russia a free hand with regard to the East of Europe, including Hungary. The fate of Hungary was therefore bound up more closely than ever with that of Austria. Her foreign policy being dictated by the Germanophil statesmen of Vienna, Hungarians in the service of the Austro-Hungarian military and civil departments of Vienna, were apt to become denationalised, and to lose their native Magyar patriotism.

If Englishmen, he says, properly rea-

lised the importance of the Danube as a great link between the West and the East, they would support Hungary, instead of approving of her mutilation.

He attributes the Hungarian troubles to a large extent to France, which country, he declares, is exceedingly anxious to cripple the Magyars.

SUBSIDISING THE WHEAT GROWER IN ENGLAND.

The British Government's new policy of encouraging agriculture by guaranteeing a minimum price for wheat and oats finds an enthusiastic supporter in Frederick A. Talbot. In an article in *The World's Work*, he speaks of the Government's Bill as "the farmer's charter." The need of some such encouragement to the growing of cereals he considers to be indisputable, not only as a measure of self-protection for Britain, but also on account of the comparative dearth of wheat all over the world. The wheat-eating population of the globe is increasing very rapidly. The increase of the wheat crops is not keeping pace.

To such a country as ours the world-wide shortage of wheat is the presage of disaster. Our acres, while admittedly relatively few, are fertile. The yield per unit ranks among the highest in the world, being approximately 32 bushels per acre. Nevertheless, we are only contributing about one-fifth of our wheat requirements to the nation's bread basket. Our imports of grain and flour are in the region of 117,000,000 cwt. a year. Six years ago we were able to fulfil our wants from abroad for an outlay of some £50,000,000. To-day the bread bill is costing us about £150,000,000 a year.

The efforts made by the Government during the war to bring pastoral lands under cultivation for grain, justified themselves, in this writer's opinion, notwithstanding many errors. The increase of the wheat-bearing land to 2,500,000 acres, he says, extricated Britain from a tight corner. But when the war ended, and the Government's compulsion was removed, the acreage under wheat diminished rapidly. Four hundred thousand acres went out of cultivation in the first year, and it is estimated that the wheat area this year is only about 1,700,000 acres. The reason was that the farmers expected an early fall in

price. The price has not, in fact, dropped, but the farmers still consider agriculture risky business.

So the Government must either acquiesce in the diminution of Britain's wheat crop, or must devise artificial encouragements for the wheat-grower. It has chosen the latter course. It proposes to guarantee competent farmers against losses arising from fluctuation of prices in the world's markets. Growers will still have to face the risks of weather, and losses due to their own lack of skill, but to counterbalance these risks, they have freedom to accept the highest profits the market offers. That is to say, when the market favours the farmers, the Government will not interfere; but, when the market goes against them, the public funds will be drawn on to provide them a subsidy.

The subsidy will not assure the bungling farmer an easy livelihood. Its amount will be regulated by the average cost of production. Suppose, for instance, the market price should fall to 74s. per quarter, while the Government's minimum, based on average cost of production, was 80s. It might be that an exceptionally skilful or exceptionally lucky farmer had produced his crop at a cost of 72s. per quarter, and would thus receive profits at the high rate of 8s., while another, less fortunate or less competent, might have run his expenses up to 82s. per quarter, so that he would be out of pocket, even after receiving the subsidy.

It is not to be supposed, says Mr. Talbot, that this or any other measure will make Britain self-supporting. Those behind the scheme will be content if it brings the wheat yield up to 40 per cent. of the nation's need. Forty

per cent. would be double the present crop. Mr. Talbot sees just a possibility of even better results. England might once again have 4,000,000 acres under wheat, as she had at the time of the Crimean war. But he considers this the limit of optimistic expectation.

It is hoped that the guarantee to the agriculturist, besides increasing the area actually under cereals, will also ensure the cultivation of a large addi-

tional area on the rotation system. All such land could be readily applied to cereal production in time of crisis. Britain's great trouble in the war was that she had so little land suitable for immediate use for wheat-growing. Much of it needed years of work to make it fit to produce a harvest of grain. Against such a condition of helplessness the farmer's charter, Mr. Talbot hopes, will protect the nation for the future.

SELF-DETERMINATION IN TURKEY.

In the first Treaty drawn up by the Allies, some feeble attempts were made to carry out the principle of self-determination—one of the things for which the war was fought (at least, so we were told), but in the latest Treaty, that with Turkey, no effort whatever has been made to establish the principle. Instead, whole areas, the population of which is known to be predominately Turkish, have been handed over to Greece, and protectorates have been set up over great provinces, without any attempt having been made to consult the wishes of the inhabitants.

Mr. Lloyd George, on January 5th, 1918, stated definitely: "Nor are we fighting . . . to deprive Turkey of its capital, or of the rich and renowned lands of Asia Minor and Thrace, which are predominately Turkish in race." In February, this year, the Prime Minister announced that this pledge was made "after full consultation with all parties. . . . It was unqualified, and it was very deliberate." A month later, however, he told the Indian Khilafat delegation that it was very difficult to get facts concerning Thrace, "but I have got before me here the Turkish census, and the Greek census about Thrace. There is very little difference between them. According to both of those, the Moslem population in Thrace is in a considerable minority." The delegation pointed out that, as the Greeks were not in possession of Thrace, they could not possibly take a census, and that the Turkish census of 1914 showed that the Moslem popula-

tion of the vilayet of Adrianople (Eastern Thrace), was 360,000, or 57 per cent. of the total, as against 224,000 Greeks, or 35½ per cent. At that time, Western Thrace had already passed out of Turkish sovereignty, although the Moslem population was 362,000 as against 86,000 Greeks. If the two halves of Thrace be taken together, the total Moslem population is 722,000, or 62½ per cent., as against 310,000 Greeks, or 26 per cent.

The delegation kept worrying the Prime Minister for his figures, and they were ultimately informed that the Foreign Office estimated the population of Turkish Thrace in 1914 to be 313,000 Greeks, and 225,000 Turks. The delegation then asked for a complete set of figures for every vilayet, as it was in 1914, as these were presumably the statistics on which the Supreme Council relied. It also asked for a statement of the reasons why authoritative statistics which differed from the Allied estimates were rejected. In reply, the delegates were informed that they could not be supplied with the details for which they had asked, nor could the Prime Minister's Secretary "enter into a discussion with them on the vexed question of the population statistics in these areas."

But, bad as is the case of Thrace, that of Smyrna is infinitely worse. The official census of 1914 shows that there were 1,250,000 Moslems, 300,000 Greeks, 20,000 Roumanians, and 40,000 other elements. This territory has been handed over to Greece, with

the proviso that five years hence, the inhabitants may decide whether they are to be permanently annexed by the Greeks or not. They are not to be allowed to decide whether they would prefer to revert to Turkish administration. Mr. Lloyd George assured the Khilafat delegation that "an impartial committee had found that a considerable majority of the population was non-Turk, and undoubtedly preferred Greek rule to Turkish rule." He added also that "we talk as if the Turk had always been the owner of Asia Minor. He has not." That, of course, is true; but for over eight centuries the Turks have been on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, and it is rather extraordinary to justify the handing over of the Turkish provinces to Greece on the ground that nine or ten centuries ago the Turks were not in possession!

In an article on the Peace Treaty, which appears in *Foreign Affairs*, Mr. Leland Buxton declares that, perhaps the most obvious comment on the Treaty is that a large part of it can never be carried out. Mr. Buxton has travelled extensively in Turkey, Arabia, and Africa, and served in the Arab Bureau during the war. He is emphatic in his denunciation of the failure of the Allies to permit the people in the districts they are carving out of the Turkish Empire to decide their own future. He declares that the Treaty is Mr. Lloyd George's treaty, and is almost as unpopular in France as it is in Italy. It rouses, too, the resentment of the Moslem world, because of its vindictive character. He goes on:—

"It was natural that our smaller enemies in Europe should be treated with injustice, for the statesmen who govern us are not sufficiently farsighted to realise the unwisdom of that policy; but the danger of treating Turkey unjustly is obvious to everyone who has heard of India. There is nothing surprising in the fact that the Prime Minister should have insisted once again on violating the principle of self-determination, but it is somewhat surprising that he should have pursued a policy which is suicidal from

the Imperial point of view. He has deliberately destroyed the British reputation for fair play and good faith which has been our greatest Imperial asset in the past. On the other hand, he has gained for Great Britain a possible vassal in the shape of Greece, and it will henceforth be one of the less congenial tasks of the British Navy to bolster up the new Greek Empire. Perhaps Mr. Lloyd George thinks that he has made a good bargain. If so, his opinion is a striking example of the hypnotic power of M. Venizelos.

"It is, no doubt, under the influence of that brilliant personality that Mr. Lloyd George has discovered Greek majorities in parts of Turkey, which have hitherto been inhabited mainly by Moslems, and, in spite of American, French and Italian opposition, has insisted on adding the whole of Thrace to the Greek kingdom, which had previously annexed half a million Turks and Bulgarians in Macedonia, and which has the worst possible record for cruelty and intolerance. The new Greece cannot stand by itself (especially as her ablest men devote themselves more readily to propaganda than to administration), and the fact that she will be dependent on British support can only intensify the bitterness already aroused against the British Empire throughout the Moslem world. With regard to Smyrna, which is to decide its own destiny after five years of administration by Greece, we may be quite sure that, if the Greek army remains there till 1925, the territory will have an overwhelming Greek majority at that date! The cession of territory to Greece is a part of the Treaty which can be enforced, but whether it will endure is another matter.

"Since the British Government has shown so little consideration for the feelings of our Moslem fellow-subjects, it might have been expected that the Treaty would at least hold out some hope for the remnant of the Armenians; but it is fairly clear that, as those unfortunate people are not in a position to help themselves, nothing is to be done for them. A large British army

will guard the oil wells of Mesopotamia, but it will not prevent the extermination of the Armenian race.

"The only hope for the Armenians of Turkey lies in the protection of one of the Great Powers, but this is not likely to be forthcoming, for the mineral resources of Armenia are insufficient to stimulate a philanthropic enterprise. Under the circumstances it is a mere farce to define the frontiers of an Armenian State. As for the League of Nations, it is no longer practical politics to suggest that it shall undertake any important task.

"While the creation of a Greek Empire is perhaps the worst feature of the Turkish settlement, there is little cause for satisfaction in any part of the Treaty. If its object is to make our own position in the Middle East secure against Turkish aggression in the future, it is totally ineffective. Turkey will, quite possibly, become a more formidable military power than she was before the war. She is not surrounded, like Bulgaria, by hostile States, and it is quite impossible for the Allies, under present circumstances, to conquer and occupy the whole of Anatolia, where the Nationalists are supremely indifferent to the orders of the Government at Constantinople. We have no means, therefore, of enforcing either the military clauses of the Treaty, or those dealing with the protection of minorities. Nor can we prevent the Turks, now that Tsarist Russia has disappeared, from joining forces with the Moslems of the Caucasus and Transcaspia, who will tolerate Turkish supervision much more readily than did the Arabs. Further, the loss of the Yemen, where Turkey has squandered her resources for decades without getting any return, will be a pure gain to her, and in the next war she will not have one of her armies shut up in Medina."

One of the most important sections of the Treaty is that which creates a "Commission of the Straits," with its own flag, budget, and police, to control the navigation of the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles. The Commission is to consist, for the

present, of representatives of the British Empire, France, Italy, Japan, Greece, Roumania, and of the United States, if that Power is willing to participate. An element of comedy is supplied by the provision that Russia and Bulgaria (who are vitally interested in the freedom of the Straits) shall have representatives on the Commission if and when they become members of the League of Nations. In other words, they are indefinitely excluded from participation, and it will doubtless be one of the objects of Greek policy to prevent Bulgaria's admission to the League.

The League of Nations is also to serve as a convenient excuse for preventing, as far as possible, the resumption of German trade with Asia Minor. It is declared that the members of the League are to enjoy complete freedom in the use of the ports of Constantinople, Smyrna, Alexandretta, etc. Thus all the members who trade with Turkey are furnished with an additional motive for keeping the ex-enemy States outside the League of Nations for a long period. The League does not figure largely in the Turkish Treaty, but it has provided the Supreme Council with some welcome opportunities of gratifying its innate love of cant.

Whatever advantages we may hope to gain by inflicting further injuries on our Christian enemies, there is little doubt that we shall suffer terribly for the crusading enthusiasm of Mr. Lloyd George. It is difficult for those who have not lived or travelled in Moslem lands to appreciate the international character of Islam. Non-Turkish Moslems care little for the Turks *qua* Turks, but they care much for the Turkish Empire as the leading Moslem Power. Certain learned students of Koranic law, with little personal knowledge of the Moslems of the present day, are fond of writing to the Press about the Khilafat. Their views on this subject are of purely academic interest. It does not in the least matter what Professor This or Dr. That thinks the Moslems *ought* to feel. What does matter is that the vast majority of Sunni Moslems *do*

believe that the Sultan of Turkey is their rightful Khalifa, and that the interests of Islam require him to be the head of a large, powerful, and independent State. According to the Peace Treaty, Turkey practically loses her independence, and is placed under the tutelage of three Christian Powers; while the conditions under which the Sultan remains at a semi-internationalised Constantinople, almost under the guns of the despised Greeks, will certainly not diminish Moslem resentment. To avoid the suspicion that the British Empire was hostile to Islam, it was essential that Turkish suzerainty, at least, should be retained over the greater part of Eastern Thrace, with its sacred city of Adrianople, and over the "Jazirat-ul-Arab (*i.e.*, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia), which has a peculiar holiness in the eyes of all Moslems. An important party has long existed among the Turks, which was in favour of provincial autonomy throughout the Empire, and there is no doubt that the Ottoman Government would now give the inhabitants of the Arab provinces what they desire, *i.e.*, the right to mismanage their own affairs with the least possible interference from any central government. As the great majority of the population would prefer the suzerainty of the Sultan to that of any Christian Power, a wise statesmanship would have left the Turks and Arabs to come to a mutual agreement.

The Allied statesmen, however, had the mentality of concession-hunters, and a particularly keen scent for coal and oil. Although the precise arrangements made among themselves have not yet been published, it is clear that Italy, as usual, gets the smallest share of the spoils, and neither the coal of Eregli, nor a sphere of influence in Southern

Anatolia, will compensate her for the aggrandisement of Greece. Syria, Mesopotamia, and Hejaz, are declared to be independent States, but this is a fiction, which deceives nobody; humbug has become such an ingrained habit with the Big Two that it has ceased even to amuse. "The selection of mandatories is to be fixed by the principal Allied Powers," and not by the peoples chiefly concerned. In practice, of course, France is to have a Protectorate over Syria, and Great Britain over Mesopotamia, Palestine and Arabia. These things outrage the feelings of Moslems throughout the world, but they do not rankle in the minds of the Turks like the Greek annexation of Thrace and Smyrna, especially as the British and French do not habitually persecute those who differ from them in race or religion.

In the case of the Treaty with Turkey, there was no clamour for vengeance from France, and it was open to Great Britain, therefore, either to initiate a policy of conciliation, or to insist on that of the Big Stick. Mr. Lloyd George, largely under the influence of Mr. Venizelos, has chosen the latter course, and the consequences will be disastrous for the British taxpayer. We have driven the Turks into the arms of the Bolsheviks, and have made the Pan-Islamic danger a reality. From Khiva to Cairo, from Adrianople to Delhi, we have fanned the flames of fanaticism, and organised the growing animosity against Christians in general, and against the British in particular. The menace to our Eastern Empire becomes more formidable month by month. When a great nation allows its foreign policy to be dictated by a Balkan statesman, it must expect to suffer.

Owing to the shortage of hotel accommodation in America, river and lake steamers are being turned into floating hotels. One well-known lake steamer is moored at a quay in Detroit,

and her 279 cabins are being let out at from one and a-half to four dollars a night. She is connected with the municipal water and electric supplies, and is earning large profits.

IN STARVING EUROPE.

Further news of the wonderful relief work done by the Swiss people comes from Madame D'Arcis, of Geneva, who writes this under date 9th July, 1920: "I launched an appeal for the starving and suffering children in Europe to the people of Switzerland last October, and by February, the results had mounted up to the value of 2,500,000 francs. (About £100,000). You will agree that this was fine, considering the fact that Switzerland has only about 3,000,000 Swiss.

"Switzerland, small, poor and weak, has been the mother of mercy in this war. Respected and trusted by all nations, she has been the clearing house of this war's misery. Impoverished as she is, she has given an overwhelming proportion, and she is continuing her honourable service to humanity by centralising all aid for the children in the famine areas. The Swiss people have already received into their own individual homes over 60,000 starving children to nurse back to health."

In her appeal, Madame D'Arcis reproduces photographs, taken personally by the president of the Relief Committee, of children in Czecho-Slovakia, Vienna and Buda-Pest, and thus comments upon them: "Look at these children; some of them are your Allies, and some are your enemies—if children can be called the enemies of men and women! Their limbs are twisted, and their little bodies wasted and diseased for want of food. They are naked, dirty, cold and starving, not ten of them, but thousands and hundreds of thousands of them. They are dying like flies in the orphan asylums, hospitals and homes of Poland, Austria, Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Lithuania, Armenia, Ukraine, Russia. They are being buried in batches tied up in paper like bundles—these pitiful little creatures, whose only crime is to have been born.

"There are whole populations of these peoples of Central Europe, now dangerously weak and hopeless from hunger, who will be exterminated un-

less means are forthcoming to save the children. And, be assured, if you permit these races which constitute the buffer between the West and East to be destroyed, it means the end of white civilisation in Europe.

"Do you know that if we had at our disposal a sum of money equal to that spent one day during the war, we could avert a danger which is of the greatest political and economic gravity to the entire world? In a world which gave more than 1500 times as much for death, it is not much now to ask for life. To such misery and depression we must be able to bring immediate and tremendous aid. You can help us to do this, and there is not a moment to be lost. Who gives quickly, gives double."

The peculiar suitability of the Swiss people to manage and distribute the relief funds can be seen from the geographical position of their country, the splendid past record of their work, and the fact that the Swiss Government not only grants official patronage to these efforts, but also allows free postage and free railway transportation to the goods. Nothing is lost—the trains are convoyed to their destination by Swiss soldiers; nothing whatever is wasted—the relief is distributed by experienced commissioners in conjunction with missions actually at work in the famine districts.

2/- will provide a daily dinner for one child for one week.

£1 will feed and clothe a naked and starving child.

£2 will take an ailing child to Switzerland, where kindly foster parents are ready to give it three months' good food, and nurse it back to health.

Madame D'Arcis is a member of the executive of the Swiss Save-the-Children Fund, and of the international Central Union of the Save-the-Children Fund. This is one of the organisations through which the relief collected for this Fund in Great Britain and Australia is distributed. Australians are invited to contribute through the Treasurer, Save-the-Children Fund, Town Hall, Melbourne.

TWOPENCE A DAY!

Indentured Labour Under the Australian Flag.

BY JOHN A. BRAILSFORD.

"Has the British Government announced the abolition of indentured labour in all territories under its control?" asked Mr. Gabb in the House of Representatives at Melbourne. The Minister of Home and Territories, Hon. A. Poynton, replied: "I am not aware of such announcement."

That was on July 21st. The important announcement that the British Government, after many years of trial, had finally "doomed" the indenture system "to extinction" had been made in the House of Commons, on April 26th. The statement of the Under-Secretary for the Colonies, Lieut.-Colonel Amery, to this effect, was cabled to Australia, and published in the Melbourne press. But Mr. Poynton remained "unaware." Even when the fuller accounts of the debate on the Colonial Estimates arrived by mail, he still contrived to preserve his ignorance. The debate should have interested him, as it contained some striking comparisons between the British and the Australian attitude to coloured workers. But neither the criticism nor the fact apparently gave the administrator of Australia's colonial policy any concern.

The report from the *London Times*, of April 27th, may be accepted as accurate:—

Major-General Seely (C.L.) asked whether it was still the policy of the Colonial Office that indentured labour of all kinds must go.

Lieut.-Colonel Amery said . . . considerable progress had, in fact, been made with the abolition of indentured labour. It was abolished in Fiji last year, and in British Guiana within the last few weeks. It existed now only in one or two places in the West Indies, and there it was doomed to extinction very shortly. There would then be no indentured labour within the British Empire. (Cheers.)

Mr. Amery's allusion to the whole British Empire was somewhat loose, but it was clear enough that he intended to give an absolute assurance that the indenture system was being abolished throughout the territories under the control of the Imperial Government. Not being responsible for Australia's New Guinea, nor for New Zealand's Samoa, he could not speak for them. But could anything have been clearer than his announcement of the British Government's policy? Yet, on July 21st Mr. Poynton was still "not aware of such announcement."

WHAT IS AUSTRALIA'S POLICY?

Now that the Imperial Government has definitely condemned the system of binding coloured workers to the service of one master, the Australian Government, with its far more limited experience, might be expected to reconsider the wisdom of its own decision. Mr. Poynton's statement of July 21st, however, expressed no dissatisfaction with the system. He had nothing to say against the payment of only twopence a day to indentured men in ex-German New Guinea (less to women and boys), nor against the payment of fourpence a day in Papua. He pointed out indeed that in both territories the employer provides shelter, food and clothing. One might imagine that "finding" the labourer in all these things, and in medical attention also, might cost the employer quite a large sum, but the official commission that recently visited New Guinea has estimated the total cost per labourer, including wages, at a shilling a day in the ex-German territory, and 1s. 2d. in Papua.

"FULLY SAFEGUARDED."

The Minister gave his assurance that

the coloured labourers were "fully safeguarded." It is humorous, in these days, to speak of a worker as "safeguarded," when he is given a wage of 1s. 2d. per week, or even twice that amount, "and found." But, as the Government has hitherto refused to force the natives to enter into indentures, and as there are officials appointed to safeguard the natives' interests, why should they not be allowed to bind themselves to work for such wages if they wish? It is simply free contract-making, the advocates of indenture say. But there is a difference between the engaging of a New Guinea native and the engaging of, say, an engineer for a long term. The difference is indicated by the word "recruiting." The natives do not come seeking work. They are sought for, and "recruited." If the recruiting agents were always scrupulously honest and humane folk, one of the worst features of indentures would disappear. But the British Government, with all its experience and care, found it impossible to get rid of the deception and violence that accompanied the recruiting of coloured workers. That was one of the worst features of the indenturing of Indians for the Fijian plantations. Men and women were swindled with tales of a delightful El Dorado, many were kidnapped by the recruiters. There were Government officials in India, too, with the duty of seeing that no labourers were sent to Fiji unless at their own free choice. But unscrupulous agents found it easy to drive ignorant, scared peasants through such safeguards by means of terrorising threats.

COMPELLED TO ENLIST.

Judge Murray's administration in Papua takes exceptional care to safeguard the natives. But it is impossible for any administrator to keep touch with every recruiting agent. Judge Murray himself has revealed some of the abuses practised by recruiters in the other section of the island. He thinks these wrong-doings have come down as a legacy from the German administra-

tion. But humane Australian officials have been in charge there for six years, and still the methods of recruiting, as Judge Murray says, "leave something to be desired." He came to know of the abuses through letters received from German companies on the island, and from one of the Australian officials there. In both cases the writers were arguing in favour of Government recruiting and compulsion, and to support their argument they thought well to point out the abuses now practised under the private recruiting system. The German companies' letter showed that the indentured labourers were often not allowed free choice in the matter. They were compelled by their chief to enlist.

RECRUITING BY SHOTGUN.

The letter from the Australian official gave more details. Judge Murray reviews it in the minority report of the Royal Commission, as follows:—

A local planter gets a contract for the supply of labourers at, say, £6 a head, and engages a Chinaman, to whom he pays, say, £3 a head, for all recruits brought in. Then comes the part which I cannot but regard as rather alarming. The Chinaman, armed with a shotgun, and attended by a few natives, possibly also so armed, and assisted by a few carriers, proceeds inland, or to some convenient place on the coast, from whence he sends his trained natives into the bush to obtain recruits for a promised reward of, say, 5s. or 10s. . . . What may happen when the Chinaman sends out armed natives, selected by himself, to collect boys on the bonus system, can only be conjectured.

Can Judge Murray assure us that, even under his own humane regime, which has brought upon him many a taunt of "pampering" the natives, strange things may not happen outside the officials' knowledge? Or can he assure us that the next administrator will be as careful as he is to protect the natives? British officials are hardly less humane or less efficient than Australians. But the British have found that the abuses are inherent in the indenture system.

WHEN THE INSPECTOR'S BACK IS TURNED.

It should not be so difficult to safeguard the natives after they have been recruited and brought to work on plantations, whose location is well known to the Government inspectors. But the inspector cannot always be watching. In Papua, according to a Magisterial report, a certain plantation owner was found to be working his labourers seven days a week, from 5.30 a.m. to 6 p.m., with one meagre meal a day. Though the place was at a high altitude, and the nights were cold, most of the workers had no clothing. The lash was used on them constantly, and for their more complete subjection, "fierce dogs were kept." That was in 1918. The report was published in overseas papers in a telegram from Sydney, dated April 29th of this year, on the authority of Mr. Bensted, agent for the Papuan Government. And this in Papua, where the safeguarding of the natives is said to be overdone! The majority of the employers, both in Papua, and in ex-German New Guinea, treat their natives decently. If an employer gets a bad reputation, he finds it difficult to engage workers. But once they enlist in his service, they may not leave him till the end of their term, however much they may dislike his methods. To break the contract is not a civil offence as in the case of a white man; it is a crime, punishable under the criminal law.

THE ONLY SAFEGUARD.

It is hardly necessary to discuss the enormous powers given to the employers in ex-German New Guinea, including the power to punish their native workers by fines or by confinement, "with or without chains." Even if such privileges were taken away, the main difficulty remains: When natives are bound to the service of a certain master, it is impossible by any system of inspection to safeguard them from abuse. The indenture bondage, like the old chattel slavery, gives the unscrupulous, merciless employer his opportunity. The British Government has found that the only way to safeguard

the native workers from such employers is to leave them free to seek other service.

DESIRE FOR IMPROVEMENT.

Eighteen months ago the Australian administration in ex-German New Guinea abolished the right of employers to flog their workers. Since then it has decided that no worker shall be flogged, even by order of a court, unless for a criminal offence. Thus whipping is completely abolished for any offence in relation to the contract of service. It is expected that when the Mandate for this territory is received, the conditions will be generally improved, to accord with the Papua practice. Indentures would then be for one year, instead of three; the punishments permitted to be inflicted by the employers would be further diminished; wages would be raised from 5s. a month to 10s. a month. Ten shillings a month is said to be the usual wage paid to natives of the Pacific Islands under British administration. But in Samoa, the Pacific Islanders under indenture, get £2 a month, and the Chinese £2 10s.—"and found." Seeing that Asiatics can demand wages five times as high as those paid in Papua, and ten times as high as in ex-German New Guinea, Mr. Poynton's assurance that none of the indentured labourers in New Guinea were imported from abroad seems a rather poor boast.

LABOUR'S ATTITUDE.

This assurance was doubtless a sop to the Labour Party. Labour has taken no consistent stand against indenture bondage, but it is staunch against the employment of Asiatics, even under free conditions. Labour apparently prefers bound natives at 1s. 2d. a week, "and found," to free Asiatics working, as they do in Melbourne, at a white man's wage. However, the matter has probably never been fully considered either by Labour or by its political opponents. When they do begin to pay some attention to the indenture system, will they agree with the conclusion of the British Colonial administrators—that the first step in the safeguarding of native workers is to liberate them?

OTHER PEOPLE'S HUMOUR



[Mail.]

[London.

HE: "The new maid is very quiet. No one would know that she is in the house."

SHE: "She isn't. She left this morning."



[Passing Show.]

[NEARING PORT. [London.

Sensational behaviour of passengers on an American liner on their first sight of a bit of Scotch scenery.



[Klods Hans.]

[Copenhagen.

"Is your wife going to the country this year?"

"No. It's too expensive!"

"But I thought your wife had very simple tastes?"

"So she has. But last time she went to the country I spent over £5 a day at home myself!"



[Passing Show.]

[London.

"Here! Confound it! Who the dickens told you to paint the bath that colour?"

"Your missus, gov'nor."

"Oh! Ah!—er—yes—er—beautiful shade, isn't it?"



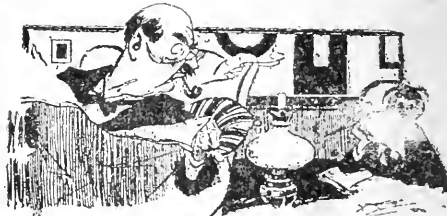
[London Opinion.]
WHY SHOULD SENSATIONAL BOOK-WRAPPERS BE CONFINED TO NOVELS?



[Mail.] [London.]
NO NEED TO MAKE A SONG ABOUT IT.
UNWELCOME SUITOR: "Shall I sing you
Tosti's 'Good-bye'?"
HIS AMBITION: "Don't sing it—say it!"



[Passing Show.] [London.]
SCENE: One of Scotland's most classic
courses.
YANKEE TOURIST (after a few turf-raising
strokes): "Y'know, I should hev the makin's
of a good golfer in me. All my ancestors are
buried round here."
CADDIE (frankly bored): "Weel, ye'll hae
tae delve a bit deeper than that if it's them
ye're looking' for."



[Mail.] [London.]
"Father, is the zebra a black animal with
white stripes, or a white animal with black
stripes?"



TIME AND ETERNITY.*

Like a Hindoo magician, Gilbert Cannan in *Time and Eternity* builds the vision of three exiles, struggling towards an undefined ideal. Cleanly chosen words and effective gestures create an impression of titan souls and great things stirring; but a photographic plate would reveal only two men of less than moderate stature, partially atoned for by a girl who excites the imagination.

Stephen Lawrie is an Englishman of birth, who found the world was too much with him. He withdrew from his class. He lived grubbily in a poor section of London, alone with his thoughts. The war was going forward. He ignored it. He was waiting until his hour should come. In his own expectation, in the opinion of his friends, apparently in the mind of the author, this would be the dawn of a considerable day.

But one doubts. When an idealist draws apart from the throng it is difficult to tell whether he has gone for forty days into the wilderness, or merely into the corner to suck his thumb. In Lawrie's case it seems to have been the latter.

People sought Stephen with their troubles, we are told. His countenance shone. He had "big, sorrowful eyes." Women kissed his hands. He is even said to be the soul of England. Perhaps the key to his character is given in the first few pages, where he confesses to a bad liver. At any rate, his radiance does not reach the reader.

"What happens in Time has no bearing on what happens in Eternity." Such is Stephen's creed; and its fallacy is the measure of his failure. He is

turned inward. He has no contact with objective realities. He lacks the stuff to save either others or himself. Presented as a hero, he is rather a holy snoke.

To the lodgings of this magnetic apparition comes Perekatov, a Russian Jew living in England, alumnus of pogroms and the 1905 revolution. He has passed the phase of actually fighting for human liberties (the coming of which he believes to be inevitable), and awaits some vaguer day. His, however, is a literal spirit, which would reduce the cosmic puzzle to a, b, c; yet he is troubled by the gift of prophecy, latent and still unreleased. He therefore seeks out the disembodied Lawrie as a natural affinity.

These two might have stewed away to nothingness in their own juice, if it had not been for Valerie. She is the child of the South African veldt. She, too, is apart from the emotion-wave of the world war. Not because she shrinks from its grimness. But because she can remember the days when Britain was not too proud to fight a handful of free citizens, and make them her dependencies. She is filled with the wrong of a father slain, and a hearthstone broken by the conqueror's heel. She, too, is self-exiled. But she has run forward to meet more of life, rather than away to hide from any of it.

She is, in fact, the complete refutation of Lawrie's theories. Her unstated platform might well have been "To seize upon the things in Time is to march with Eternity." While Perekatov and Lawrie were looking to some future leadership of the throng which they disdained, Valerie was living and creating as the seconds ticked by.

*"Time and Eternity; a tale of three exiles." By Gilbert Cannan. (Doran & Co.)

She opened a flat and studio in London. Rag-tag Bohemia, deserters, demi-mondaines, publicity promoters, and a soldier, hung upon her like leeches. She knew herself to be exploited, yet she continued to give freely of her property and her personality. She had a sense of responsibility to all who made claim upon her. She did not withhold her energies nor refuse an atom of experience. She could climb to Heaven's Gate on Jacob's Ladder. Its foothold was on the earth.

Its particular pedestal was Lawrie. He met her one noon at a restaurant. The attraction was instantaneous. It is, in fact, the great achievement of this book that the passion of Valerie and Stephen is dramatised vividly. It is the

outlet for her tempestuous creative activity, and the solution of his self-puzzled spirit.

Though the book frequently reveals such creative strokes, though its general plan is majestically conceived, yet it conveys the sense of being preliminary work. Just as The New Machiavelli gave evidence of a restless intelligence which was to realise itself further in The Research Magnificent, so *Time and Eternity* suggests the need for a future work which will see the thing through. The sculptor is still groping. He has chiselled out, in Valerie, a figure of searching beauty; but the outlines of the two other exiles are uncertain. The general conception, though hinted at, is still a mere sketch. J.C.L.

A TROOP OF PALE CHARACTERS.*

There is to be eaten a disheartening kind of meal—a flock of small dishes, the contents of which are distinguishable one from another by name rather than taste—the brood of one all-creating pot, wherein are successively stewed onion, beef, turnip and veal. Such a pot withholds from each food a part of its individuality, and hands it on to dilute the personality of the next, to confuse mild veal with pungent onion, and so sets up a single standard of grey nourishment, a common denominator of mere calories. Just as mercilessly does Miss Spadoni's imagination operate, sending forth into a real, three-dimensioned world a troop of pale characters cursed with congenital indistinctness, doomed from birth to wander unrecognisably in the fog of a common origin.

Consider briefly the cast, of vaguely human, blurred figures, of low visibility, like forms crouching at dusk on a bed covered with mosquito netting. For example, our leading lady, Jean Norris; "a big, fair woman, not obviously pretty." When she meets our first hero, Franklin Herrick, she has "a strange impression of receiving

a very distinct picture of something naturally indistinct." And so hits off, accidentally, a quite accurate description of *The Swing of the Pendulum*, as a whole. For Miss Spadoni remind; one of a Swiss guide persuasively adjusting a myopic telescope to the tourist's eye, which, aimed presumably at the rare lacework of distant peaks, sees only a dim blue circle, bulging into opalescent rings. Through such a telescope Jean peered hopefully at Herrick, only to learn that "there was something large and curved and whitish about this tall man that made her think of big gulls," that "... there was something burning below the flesh that whitened and sharpened him." This tendency to the albino about Herrick extends even to his vision, for he calls Jean "you wonderful big white woman," and thinks of her as "a white prairie fire." But, in spite of such adoration, Jean leaves him.

Jean, now well over thirty, edges toward the sunset of her life as a heroine. Next male. The albino tinge reddens in the soft haze that attends the sunset: Gregory Allen is a "tall man, about forty, with thick dry brown hair, full of reddish lights, and red-brown eyes." But he fades, for he

*"The Swing of the Pendulum." By Adriana Spadoni. (Boni and Liveright.)

refuses to give Jean the child she desires by him—and does so quite properly, since he is married. Wanted, a hero, a real flesh-and-blood hero, compounded of strength and silence, if necessary, but at all odds alive, throbbing, crudely visible, not like a composite photograph of the hero-team. For this role Philip Fletcher will obviously not qualify, and Jean quite properly rejects him, for though "his eyes were clear, blue and kind, a trifle

too far apart. . . . his mouth was weak." He too fades into the limbo, the jungle, where by now we are sure Miss Spadoni has numberless pale male ghosts in leash. And Jerome Stuart emerges, making his most definite appearance as "a quiet man with stooping student shoulders, and thick grey hair." Jean and he stand a moment in embrace on the last page of the book, then vanish over the brink into probable bliss. R.L.

GUILD SOCIALISM AND THE STATE.*

Guild Socialism has hitherto lacked a reasoned theory of social organisation. In this book Mr. Cole makes a brave and wonderfully successful effort to grapple with its difficulties. It is no light task to crowd into so small a space what is, broadly speaking, a survey of liberty in terms of institutions; but whatever the unstated implications of Mr. Cole's view, no one will rise from the perusal of this book without a sense that the ground has been cleared for action, and that we know with real precision in what fashion the political philosophy of Guild Socialism differs from all previous views. The task is performed with a precision and a clarity that deserve high praise.

The real purpose that Mr. Cole has in view is to render unnecessary the sovereign and omnicompetent state. It is for him an instrument of tyranny because the very vastness of its effort will render insignificant not merely the practice, but even more the purpose of all other associations. The state is regarded as merely one of a whole series of groups, trade unions, churches, and the like, of which society is composed. None of these groups derives its validity from the state; and none of them can be free if the state is to set the terms upon which its life is to be lived. What Mr. Cole is therefore anxious to discover is a system of co-ordinate autonomies through which, ul-

timately, the necessary social synthesis may be derived. He is in search, that is to say, of liberty, and he finds liberty in the power possessed by each group of men to perform its given function. He rejects parliamentary government on the adequate ground that a delegation of inclusive power is destructive of true representation. What he would do is to divide life into its various functions, to give to each its system of government, and then by co-ordination of these bodies into some form of joint congress to have an ultimately unifying factor into which the purposes of all may enter.

The head and centre of debate is the problem of what that institution, which at present we term the state, is to do. In Mr. Cole's view the state is that form of association in which men meet upon the ground of identity instead of difference. In the state they are essentially citizens, and it is in the hinterland surrounding their specialised functions, as engineers or miners or doctors that the state is to perform its task. Defence, justice, education—it is with tasks such as these that the state would concern itself. Or, in economic terms, the state represents the citizen as consumer, as a man needing and enjoying certain goods and services, where the Guild represents him as producer. The state, that is to say, would concern itself with seeing that New York got its coal; but the life of the miner would not be internally regulated by its authority. For if the state had that task of co-ordina-

*"Social Theory." By G. D. H. Cole. (Stokes & Co.)

tion, it would, ultimately, become again sovereign, which is the purpose that Mr. Cole is eager to avoid. The central arbitrating body will be not merely the state, but a council of functional authorities, in which the state would be only one element.

Mr. Cole would doubtless be the first to admit that he has left many questions unanswered; and it will probably best indicate the kind of problem that he raises if I suggest in outline the type of difficulty that occurs to me. Mainly it arises upon the frontier of control, and I do not think it beyond solution. But I do not think either that Mr. Cole has dealt with it, or that his confreres in the National Guilds movement have any real conception of its importance. The heart of the problem is really a delimitation of areas. Mr. Cole conceives the state as representing the interest of consumers, and it must therefore, as Mr. Cole admits, control both income and prices. But, surely, if the state, to take an obvious instance, is to control the price of coal, however great the mechanism of conference we provide, the state is, at a fundamental point, within the heart of the Miners' Guild and I would suggest therein that the type of organisation towards which that fact looks forward is nearer the solution of the Sankey report than it is to that of Mr. Cole himself. For, to the will of the state the Miners' Guild would have to give an attention so complete as to make it broadly all powerful. If disagreement ensued, reference, I suppose, would be had to Mr. Cole's Joint Congress. In that assembly I find it difficult to understand how the state is, on the one hand, fairly represented as against the combined interest of producers, or, even if its demand be successful, is to get its will obeyed if the miners prove recalcitrant. Will the Joint Congress order the army to occupy the mines? But Mr. Cole knows as well as I do that soldiers cannot mine coal, and if we are to go without coal, modern experience of the great industry does not help us to feel subdued. Or does Mr. Cole conceive that the corollary of functional federalism is the

prohibition of strikes in industries of public importance? To that argument there are at least two replies. Such limitation really creates a sovereign body to enforce the prohibition, and when the disagreement goes to the heart of a principle no prohibition in the world will be effective as against the will to strike.

There is, in fact, an answer to all these questions. But their statement is important because they bring into prominence the defective aspects of Guild Socialist theory. What its exponents have thus far failed to explore is its psychological background, on the one hand, and its relation to jurisprudence upon the other. Juristically, indeed, Guild Socialism, at the moment, has no foundation whatever. It is obviously groping towards a pluralistic conception of sovereignty; but it has still to meet the theory of Austin at its root, and show by what precise scheme it proposes to replace it. And that is the more important because any social philosophy which depends, as Mr. Cole's depends, upon a careful division of function, will need a series of written constitutions, and a far more prominent judiciary than is to-day at our disposal for their interpretation. In a society such as Mr. Cole depicts, that is to say, much, if not most, will turn upon the power of judicial review; and it is important to know the mechanism whereby Mr. Cole proposes to make effective the decisions of the Courts. Here again, one seems driven back upon a state more unified in substance than his theory permits; though, here also, the difficulty is more formal than practical. For it is obvious that the foundation of respect for the judiciary must, in Mr. Cole's system, lie in the manner in which the judiciary is appointed. In that aspect the British Coal Commission has taught us an administrative lesson we should ceaselessly remember.

The psychological problem implicit in Mr. Cole's philosophy is not, I think, at all fairly met anywhere in his book. Mr. Cole—it is a noble fault—always writes as though every member of the community will be as interested as he

himself is in the process of government. He assumes at once a far greater identity of nature than is the actual case with any society at the same time as he insists upon a far greater interchange of function. I do not doubt that there is no greater social wastage than that which is due to our neglect of the immense body of experience which the working-class possesses. But I think that the process of making experience articulate and the further process of translating it into legislative terms are far more difficult than Mr. Cole seems to be aware of. I cannot avoid the feeling that the democracy of the future is bound to be not an undifferentiated mass of citizens, but a rather carefully stratified structure in which the critical point will be the important administrative positions. And at that point I feel fairly certain that the kind of psychology which will govern our system of organisation is to be found not in the literature of Guild Socialism, but in the very careful analysis presented to the Coal Commission by Lord Haldane. Responsibility, in a word, will involve power: and that power must, to be effective, gather about itself safeguards against a hasty decision on the part of those who delegate it. A democracy will always need leaders, and it will always have to trust those leaders. Education will do much to make the test of their fitness more adequate than it is to-day. But it would be idle to expect that in any community the vast majority of citizens can be made to follow the technical details of administration; and it would be vicious to destroy the im-

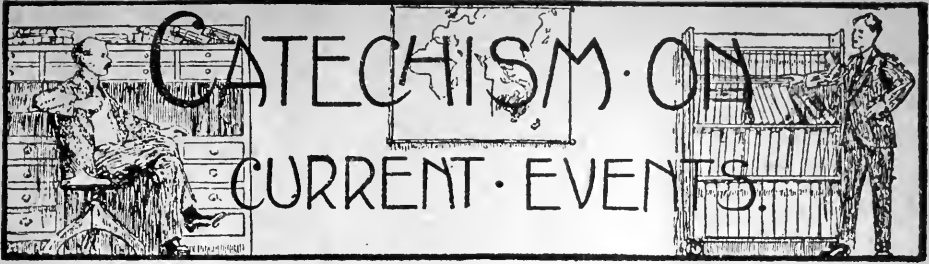
portance of continuity by a process of constant change or easy dismissal in the interest of freedom. Anyone who has seen the ideals of Jacksonian democracy at work will realise how imperative it is not to prolong the hold of its misguided ideals longer than is absolutely necessary.

Mr. Cole's book is so stimulating that in a later edition I hope he will remove one unnecessary confusion. To tilt at Dr. Bosanquet is admirable; but it is impossible to accept Rousseau's general will, on the one hand, and reject the general idealist philosophy upon the other. Rousseau's general will, as I have tried elsewhere to show, is the root of some of the most mischievous misunderstanding in the history of political ideas. It is little more than a pious aspiration that the right should prevail; and when it is translated into the practical terms of political procedure it comes to mean little more than majority-rule. The greatness of Rousseau does not consist in the particular solution of the problem of freedom that he proposed, but rather in his unerring perception that it consists in discovering the relation of individuality to organisation. Hobbes, at bottom, destroyed individuality that organisation might be preserved. Locke ultimately was willing to sacrifice the continuum of social life to purely abstract individual right. But Rousseau perceived that the root of the problem is in their conjunction; and it has been the continuous effort of social philosophy since his time to answer the question that he posed.

H.J.L.

The Belgian Government discussed the revision of the Constitution last July. It approved the enlargement of the franchise to include all citizens of 21 years and over, who had been domiciled for six months in the same place. It, however, refused to extend the franchise to women. The voting on the proposal was 89 against, and 74 in favour.

When Mediha Hanem, sister of Enver Pasha, was arrested recently by the Turkish police in the Asiatic quarter of Constantinople: she had in her possession three large trunks filled with valuable ornaments, jewellery and gold and silver, the whole worth a very large sum of money. This lady played a notable role in Turkish politics during recent years.



Q.—Has the property of the Pacific Phosphates Company, in Ocean Island, been bought by the British and Australian Governments?

A.—Yes. The price of £3,500,000 secured the Ocean Island as well as the Nauru property of the Company.

Q.—How did the Australian Government raise its share of the purchase price for the Nauru and Ocean Island properties?

A.—The Government appropriated the money for this purpose—£1,470,000—out of the War Loan Fund. Such an appropriation was, of course, improper; Parliament should have been asked to vote the money.

Q.—Who owned the Mesopotamian oil wells before the war?

A.—An Anglo-German concern called the Turkish Petroleum Company. The British interests owned 75 per cent. of the shares, and the Deutsche (German) Bank the rest. Since the war the German share has been transferred to France.

Q.—Is there much capital invested in Mesopotamian oil?

A.—The Anglo-German company increased its capital from £80,000 to £160,000, four months before the war. A financial critic in London has remarked that this is a very small investment to justify the proposed spending of the British taxpayers' money to the extent of from £20,000,000 to £70,000,000 a year to enforce British control of Mesopotamia.

Q.—Is it a fact that American grape-growers have rooted up their vines because of Prohibition?

A.—According to published reports, there is a greater demand than ever for grapes, the "dry" laws having created a better market for grape juice.

Q.—Do the German people in the occupied territory make no protest against the presence of France's African troops?

A.—Protests were recently published in seven of the local newspapers, including the *Kölnische Zeitung* and the *Rheinische Zeitung*. All were suppressed by the Allied Rhineland Commission.

Q.—Has the scheme for the conscription of Europeans in India been put into force?

A.—No. It was rejected by the Imperial Government. The Home authorities also prevented the introduction of conscription in Hongkong.

Q.—How many people have come to Australia since Federation?

A.—During twelve years from the establishment of the Commonwealth to the first war year, the arrivals in the Commonwealth numbered 1,021,220, or an average of 85,101 per annum. But not all these arrivals were immigrants. The net gain by excess of arrivals over departures for that period was only 19,100 a year.

Q.—What is the public debt per head of the various States?

A.—The latest figures we have are for the end of the 1919 financial year, the State debts then being:—West Australia, £116 per head; Queensland, £91; South Australia, £90; New South Wales, £74; Tasmania, £69; Victoria, £54. Interest charges average £3 per head for all the States. These are the charges on State debts alone. In addition there is the Commonwealth debt, which amounts to just £3 per head for the whole of Australia.

Q.—Is America, like Australia, reducing its wheat area?

A.—In the United States the acreage of winter wheat this year is 23 per cent. less than last year. The number of farm workers is 28 per cent. less than in 1918. However, the season has been exceptionally good, and the total wheat yield is expected to be higher than the average of the past few years.

Q.—Is the drift of population to the cities noticeable in America?

A.—The drift is indicated by the following figures, showing the percentage of the population living in towns of over 2500 inhabitants:—In 1890, 36 per cent.; in 1900, 40 per cent.; in 1910, 46 per cent. Statistics for the last 10 years are not available, but the estimates show a continued rapid drift from farm to city.

Q.—What is the nature of the new American shipping law, which has called forth international protests?

A.—The so-called "Jones law" is really a series of regulations to assist United States ships by charging them lower dues in American ports, and by carrying their cargoes on the railways at rates lower than those charged for goods carried in foreign vessels. This discrimination falls very heavily upon Japanese shipping lines, which had had advantageous freight arrangements with the American railways. The railways had often been accused of manipulating their freights, so as to favour certain shipping companies, and were alleged to have ruined the Oceanic company's service to Australia by this means. But discrimination of this kind as an American policy is new.

Q.—You have mentioned the injustice done to French and Italian traders by Australia's method of assessing values for Customs charges. What is the present position?

A.—Mr. Hughes announced in Parliament on August 25th that the Government would introduce legislation to "offer relief" to France, Italy and other countries by assessing the value of their merchandise on a fairer basis than that of the pre-war mode of exchange. The present mode of assessing

has about doubled the duty charges on goods from France, and has placed the less prosperous countries at greater disadvantage. He added that the new legislation would not "impose handicaps on America," which secures notable advantages under the present system.

Q.—Is the Australian Government actually enforcing the embargo on German-printed Bibles?

A.—The regulation prohibiting the importation of Bibles, prayer books, hymn books, etc., printed in German, for use in the Lutheran churches, is being strictly enforced. Literature of this kind was already on the way from the United States when the embargo was announced, and the Lutheran bodies hoped that these shipments would be exempted in accordance with the usual custom when a new prohibition is announced. But, after books to the value of about £100 had been delivered to the Lutheran Depot at Adelaide, they were seized by Customs officials. Even English hymn books were seized, because they contained the German names of the tunes, as well as the English! Australia's practice of excluding not only religious literature, but almost all other books printed in German, contrasts with the action of Canada, which is admitting German books free of duty.

Q.—Mr. Winston Churchill is reported to have said, "I am carrying out Koltchak's orders." What were the circumstances?

A.—General Golovin, who represented the anti-Bolshevik Russians last year in London, sent home a report of his efforts to induce the British War Minister to aid in the fight against the Bolsheviks. According to this report, Mr. Churchill demanded secrecy, and referred to the opposition of the British workers to the policy of intervention in Russia. "He had declared in the House of Commons that fresh forces were necessary for the purpose of evacuating the North. He would send under this pretext (General Golovin stated) up to 10,000 volunteers, who would replace the worn-out

parts, especially the demoralised American and French troops; he will also postpone the actual evacuation for an indefinite period (but will not speak about it), and he agrees upon the help of the newly-arrived British troops being actively manifested. . . . In short he will do all he can, but again added that the success of our common cause demanded great secrecy. It was very difficult for him to send military forces to the aid of General Denekine because, as far as the North was concerned, he had a pretext—that of supporting the British troops already there—but the idea of supporting Denekine, were it even by volunteers, would be carried out by him. (*So printed.*) He would send up to 2500 volunteers under cover of instructors and technical troops, and if these will fight side by side against the Bolsheviks—this will, of course, be natural. . . . He told me that in all Russian affairs he recognises only Admiral Koltchak . . . and said: 'I am myself carrying out Koltchak's orders.'"

Q.—Does Mr. Churchill deny having made this statement?

A.—He was questioned on the subject in the House of Commons recently. His reply suggested that General Golovin's report contained inaccuracies, but he did not deny its general correctness.

Q.—Is it true that huge sums are being spent in the American Presidency campaign?

A.—The charge made by Mr. Cox, the Democratic nominee, that the rival Republican Party is raising £3,000,000 in order to "purchase" the Presidency may be only a guess, published to discredit the enemy, but the size of the campaign funds already used has become a scandal. Thus General Leonard Wood had a fund of 1,252,000 dols. for his effort (unsuccessful) to win the Republican nomination at the party's "primary" election. About half of this sum was contributed by an Ohio soap manufacturer, W. C. Procter. Governor Lowden had a fund of 414,000 dols., mostly his own or his wife's money. Other large funds were:—Senator

Johnson, 200,000 dols.; Senator Harding, 113,000 dols.; Coolidge, 68,000 dols.; Hoover, 62,000 dols. (excepting the California campaign); Palmer, 59,000 dols.; Butler, 40,000 dols.; Cox, 22,000 dols.

Q.—Is there any evidence that these funds are used corruptly?

A.—The matter was investigated by a Senate Committee. Two delegates to the Republican Party convention stated that they had received 2500 dols. each from the Lowden fund without instructions for its use or any knowledge of how to employ it legitimately. Both admitted having paid the money into their banking accounts. Attorney-General Palmer had a comparatively small fund, but evidence was given that he was using his official position improperly—for instance, by accepting the aid of an election worker who was counsel to a man involved in a dispute with the Government over an income tax claim of 3,000,000 dols. Whether this and other charges were verified we have not learned.

Q.—Will you explain the circumstances of the famous Ems telegram, which Bismarck employed to precipitate the war with France?

A.—France and Prussia had been drifting toward war since the close of the Austro-Prussian war (1866), when France was disappointed not to receive any territorial gains by way of compensation for Prussia's increase of Power. Between 1867 and 1870 Napoleon III. of France was working for an alliance with Austria against Prussia. In the circumstances, Bismarck welcomed an opportunity of assuring the support of Spain. He pressed Prince Leopold (of the Prussian Royal House of Hohenzollern), to accept an invitation to the Spanish throne. France protested. Bismarck denied all knowledge of the affair, realising that he could not command popular support in a war with France on that question. The French Ambassador, Benedetti, discussed the matter with the Prussian King at Ems, asking him to undertake never to support a Hohenzollern candidature for the throne of Spain. A

report of the interview was wired to Bismarck, who altered its whole sense by cutting out important sentences, and published the message to the world in such a form as to make war inevitable.

Q.—What was the actual text of the original Ems telegram?

A.—The telegram was despatched from Ems by "the faithful Abeken," a Bismarckian official at the Court. It was dated July 13th, 1870, and stated:

His Majesty writes to me: "Count Benedetti spoke to me on the promenade in order to demand from me finally, and in a very importunate manner, that I should authorise him to telegraph at once that I bound myself for all future time never again to give my consent if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. I refused at last somewhat sternly, as it is neither right nor possible to undertake engagements of this kind *a tout jamais* (for ever and ever). Naturally I told him that I had as yet received no news, and as he was earlier informed about Paris and Madrid than myself, he could clearly see that my Government once more had no hand in the matter." His Majesty has since received a letter from the Prince. His Majesty, having told Count Benedetti that he was awaiting news from the Prince, has decided with reference to the above demand, upon the representation of Count Eulenburg and myself, not to receive Count Benedetti again, but only to let him be informed, through an aide-de-camp, that His Majesty had now received from the Prince confirmation of the news which Benedetti had already received from Paris, and had nothing further to say to the Ambassador. His Majesty leaves it to Your Excellency whether Benedetti's fresh demand, and its rejection, should not be at once communicated both to our ambassadors and to the press.

Q.—What was the text of Bismarck's abbreviated version of the telegram?

A.—Bismarck issued the following announcement:—

After the news of the renunciation of the hereditary Prince of Hohenzollern had been officially communicated to the Imperial Government of France by the Royal Government of Spain, the French Ambassador at Ems further demanded of His Majesty the King (of Prussia) that he would authorise him to telegraph to Paris that His Majesty the King bound himself for all future time never again to give his consent if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. His Majesty the King thereupon decided not to receive the French Ambassador again, and sent to tell him through the aide-de-camp on duty that His Majesty had nothing further to communicate to the Ambassador.

Q.—Did Bismarck really intend by thus changing the message to bring about war?

A.—He says in his "Recollections," that the change "made this announcement appear decisive, while Abeken's version would only have been regarded as a fragment of a negotiation still pending, and to be continued at Berlin." Bismarck was fully aware that Napoleon III. was anxious to crush Prussia at the first favourable opportunity. The latter's defeat of Austria had greatly disquietened the French, who dreaded the appearance of any strong Power across the Rhine. They feared that if Prussia continued to grow in strength, the other German States would join her—thus creating a united Germany. As this would deal a death-blow to his grandiose schemes for dominating Europe, Napoleon only waited a favourable opportunity to attack Prussia, and thus prevent the union he feared. Bismarck, by issuing the abbreviated telegram, precipitated this attack. It was everywhere assumed at the time, except perhaps in Berlin, that the French army was much stronger than the Prussian, nor was it anticipated that Bavaria, Baden and other German States, would actively side with Prussia. The French declaration of war actually precipitated the birth of that German Empire they were so anxious to prevent.

Q.—I have been told that Bismarck also falsified France's request to be allowed to annex Belgium and Luxemburg. Is it true?

A.—Certainly not. At the close of the Austro-Prussian war France proposed to support Prussia in adding the South German States to the new confederation, asking as a *quid pro quo* an undertaking from Prussia to support France in the latter's attempt to annex Belgium and Luxemburg. Bismarck did not conclude the treaty drafted for this purpose, but he kept a copy of the draft, in the French Ambassador's handwriting. In 1870 he published this draft in the London *Times*. There is no doubt whatever that Napoleon III. had every intention of annexing Belgium and Luxemburg to France.

A Sporting Bet.

BY FRED M. WHITE.

FANSHAW was a rather superior being, and his prospective brother-in-law, Joe Crate, was going to give him a lesson. One thing had led to another, and the bet of £50 had been made. Fanshaw was to be dumped down somewhere in the East End, and find his way home West within twelve hours, with only his wits to guide him, and without asking his way. It looked easy, so, to make a long story short, Fanshaw found himself the following night walking down an unfamiliar street in some strange part of London. He was dressed, at Crake's suggestion, in a shabby suit of tweeds and a bowler hat, the whole being covered by a brown mackintosh, for it was anything but a pleasant evening, and decidedly suggestive of rain.

At the end of an hour he had wandered through one thoroughfare after another with shops devoted to the inner man, shops that sold clothing, most of which was hanging up outside the windows and flapping over the pavement. The trams were packed with steaming humanity, mostly of the artisan class, with here and there a clerk and a typewriting girl or two. They came and went in an endless procession that was almost bewildering, and in the midst of all this teaming life, Fanshaw moved like a man apart. He had an odd feeling that he was a creature of another world, and that he moved invisible amongst a universe that spoke a language of its own, and then, catching sight of an illuminated clock over a pawnshop, he realised with a start that he had been walking about those narrow sordid streets for the best part of three hours.

He walked on quickly.

This sort of thing would never do, he told himself. By all the rules of the game he ought to have been back in Chapel Street long ago, and he was be-

ginning to be uncomfortably conscious of the fact that he needed his dinner badly. But in this new world to Fanshaw there were many strange things beyond the reach of his comprehension. Then again, another long street with those ridiculous shops, more long avenues of those mean little houses cut to the same pattern, and here and there a sinister court, inhabited by one or two forbidding-looking loungers who watched Fanshaw from under their eyebrows as he strode by. He had an instinct that the sooner he was away from that atmosphere the better, and one of the strangest parts of it was that these fragrant areas were so frequently cheek by jowl with the wide thoroughfares, up and down which the trams were streaming in an endless blaze of flame.

Just before eleven o'clock Fanshaw realised with an uncomfortable feeling that the street he had just entered was familiar to him. He had certainly been through that earlier in the evening, because he remembered a huge pumpkin just outside a greengrocer's shop window. Like most people who are lost, he had wandered more or less in a circle. Then he turned in the opposite direction.

Still the streets were full of people wandering to and fro restlessly, people, apparently, who did this sort of thing the clock round. But where did all the children come from, and why were they playing and quarrelling and fighting in the gutter at this time of night? Fanshaw had a strong impulse to speak to two small ragamuffins who were playing a mysterious game with something that looked like bones, under the light of a street lamp. He had been wandering about now for five hours, and he was feeling extremely lonely. The loneliness was beginning to get on his nerves, so that he stopped in front of the boys

and addressed some casual remark to them. The elder of the two looked up at him suspiciously.

He was a thin, frail wisp of humanity, with big hungry eyes that at the same time were preternaturally sharp. They were the eyes of the animal all the world over, the animal that slinks about the wilds, picking up its food where it can, and with the hand of every other jungle beast against it.

"Well, what abaht it?" the young animal piped in a shrill tenor. "Wot yer shoving yer beak in for, guv'nor?"

"Like to earn sixpence?" Fanshaw asked.

The big melancholy eyes gleamed hungrily. "Not 'arf. But for wot? 'Ere, none, o' yer gimes."

"Oh, that's all right," Fanshaw said, at the same time producing the coin. "There you are. Now will you answer me a question or two? Did you ever hear of Hyde Park?"

"Who yer gettin' at?" the child asked. "Course I 'ave."

"Have you ever been there?"

"Me? Nah. Ain't never been West but once in me life, and that's when I took a note for a lidy in Pork-line from a bloke wot got pinched in these parts."

"That's interesting," said Fanshaw gravely. "And how do you get there? By tram or 'bus?"

The ragged waif in the gutter jerked his thumb over his left shoulder as he addressed his still more diminutive companion.

"Bloke's up the pole, ain't 'e, Jim?" he asked.

"Barmy," the other derelict said, sardoniously. "Orf 'is rocker, that's wot's the matter along o' 'im."

There was no resentment in Fanshaw's heart as he looked down into those poor pinched faces that were at once so pathetically young, and yet so full of precocious cunning. The gleams of the street lamp picked out their lean, ragged figures, and Fanshaw felt strangely moved towards them. They had no fear of him at all, and he could see that their attitude was one of pitying patronage.

"Tell me about it," he asked.

"There ain't nothin' to tell," the elder waif said. "Find me way anywheres, I can. 'Ow d'you think I sells me pipers when I've got any stuff to buy 'em wiv'?"

"I suppose you can ask questions?" Fanshaw suggested.

"Wot, coppers and them sort? Not me. Where was yer brought up guv'nor? That's the way yer get into trouble. Don't you never go near a bobby 'less you're obliged to."

Fanshaw drifted on presently, feeling strangely small and almost absurdly human. It was a new sensation to him, and, strangely enough, a not unpleasant one. It was amusing him rather, that this child of the gutter should patronise him so openly and should possess a quality that was denied to him.

A dog could have done it, but here was he, the heir of the ages, wandering about in London, and unable to get a yard nearer home, despite the fact that he was the superior creature man, who could yet do nothing without asking questions of a class of being which a few hours ago he had despised.

He drifted on and on, apparently getting further away from civilisation, until he came at length to a still meaner quarter, which seemed to be given over to strange tribes. He was in the heart of the jungle, so to speak, with decrepit houses reeking with offensive humanity and filled with queer faces the like of which he had never seen before. These were dark people for the most part, like gipsies, with here and there an oriental, and a sprinkling of more wholesome life in the way of a sailor or two. Then the other side of the street seemed to fade away, and a pleasing odour of tar and pinewood filled the night. In the blackness of it Fanshaw could see thin fingers pointing to the sky, and realised that he must be somewhere near the docks. A great flarelight shot up from somewhere, and picked out by it were groups of men bearing heavy burdens on their heads. Utterly exhausted and worn out, Fanshaw dropped on a packing case and watched them.

He was still watching in a detached sort of way, when an old man passed him—an old man who seemed to be looking at his reflection of the flare-light and picking his way cautiously as if he were not sure of his feet. Then Fanshaw saw that the man was blind, and that he was being towed at the end of a string by a brown mongrel. Acting on the impulse of the moment, Fanshaw addressed the man holding the lead.

"Have you had a good day?" he asked.

"No sir," the blind man said. "It's been bad, very bad. I haven't taken a shilling since morning."

Perhaps it was Fanshaw's accent that had told the man that he was speaking to someone above his own station, but at any rate his manner was respectful enough, and Fanshaw could see that the other was clean and quite respectably dressed.

"Perhaps I can help you," he said.

"I don't know who you are, sir," the blind man replied, "But I am sure you are a kind-hearted gentleman. They're been scarce enough up West all day, and I didn't expect to find one here. Sometimes some gents wot writes for the papers comes down 'ere, but not often."

"It's a hard life, I suppose?" Fanshaw said.

"It is that," the blind man replied.

"Why, I suppose I walk a matter of twenty-five mile a day, me and me little fiddle and the dog. All through the West End, and in the Parks. Oh yes, the policemen are very good to me on the whole, and I manage to make some sort of a living. But I wasn't brought up to this, sir. I lost my sight after having had small-pox, and a sailor man trained this dog for me. He's the third I've had, and a good 'un, too. Takes me everywhere, and is as careful with his old master as if I were a little child. Never crosses the street unless it's safe, and never makes a mistake."

"And never fights other dogs, I suppose?"

"Only sometimes when we're in one of the parks," the mendicant said. "I let him off the lead then, so as he can

have a run and enjoy himself. But he's never far off, is Peter, and, bless your soul, he knows when it's time to come home, just for all the world as if he could read the face of the clock."

A whimsical thought occurred to Fanshaw.

"Would he take me, do you think?" he asked. "I am lost here, or at least I have lost my way, and am trying to get back without asking questions."

"Ah, that he would," the blind man said, "If I was to put the lead into your hands and tell Peter to take you to Hyde Park Corner, if you like, he'd lead you there, and if you told him afterwards to come home, why, he'd do it like a Christian. Wonderful things is dogs, sir, wonderful! Ah, we calls them animals, but that's because we knows no better."

Fanshaw cordially agreed. It seemed to him that Peter, sitting up there patiently on his haunches, was following every word of the conversation. He wagged his little stump of a tail as if fully conscious of the fact that he was in the presence of a friend, and his thin tongue caressed Fanshaw's hand almost affectionately. It seemed strange to Fanshaw, the adventurer, that this small mass of dingy brown fur should have possessed the quality which he so vitally lacked at the moment.

"Well, I must be going on, sir," the blind man said, "I haven't very far to go now, and I've had a weary day. All I wants now is to go to bed and pray for a fine day to-morrow."

"But you'll have supper first?" Fanshaw asked.

"Not to-night, sir. It don't run to supper. A biscuit and a bit of a bone for the dog. Besides, what does it matter? I'm too tired to be really hungry."

Fanshaw fished a couple of half-crowns out of his pocket and pressed them into the blind man's hand.

"Thank you, sir," he said, without any suggestion of fulsomeness. "Thank you very kindly. These things do happen sometimes when you least expect them."

"Oh, that's all right," Fanshaw said. "I'm only too pleased to help you. But you'll get some supper now."

"Oh, yes, sir, there's a place not far off that's always open. There are lots of them in these parts, because, you see, there's always ships coming and going. Supper, Peter."

Peter jumped to his feet and barked joyously. Then he tugged at the lead, and a moment later he and his dark master passed out of the rays of the flarelight and into the gloom beyond, leaving Fanshaw with a strange sense of loneliness.

He would give it up, of course; he would have to confess himself beaten, and admit that there were some things in which the dog was superior to the man. But not yet, not quite yet, because his pride would not permit him going so far as that. He was dreadfully cold and hungry, shaking from physical exhaustion, but he would struggle on a bit longer. Perhaps something would turn up yet to give him a clue.

He wandered on again for another hour, until he could hear a clock in the distance strike two. Down in those parts by the river, the flarelights broke the line of the sky, and men seemed to be toiling unceasingly. Here and there were belated sailors coming back from some noisy conviviality, and highly suggestive of, indulgence in that which takes the reason prisoner. A little way off a knot of them had gathered round a man who was dragging what appeared to be a piano organ behind him. The man with the organ was protesting in the midst of the sailors, who had evidently made up their minds to have their own way about something. As Fanshaw drew nearer he saw that the sailors were collected round a gramophone on a hand-cart, and presently a drunken cheer proclaimed the fact that they had achieved what they wanted. A voice rose on the air, a grand voice which Fanshaw had no difficulty in recognising. He knew the air, too, as one from "Pagliacci." Then, as a sudden discord struck into the midst of those liquid notes, with almost a thrill Fan-

shaw recognised the fact that he was within a few yards of a street musician who worked a series of Caruso records once a week within a stone's throw of his own flat.

Here was a stroke of luck, at any rate. He had to wait until three or four records had been played and the sailors had rolled off contentedly in the direction of their ship. Then he followed the man with the gramophone, until he saw it housed in a sort of stable, where evidently it was kept whilst the owner slept. If Fanshaw was not to be utterly beaten, he would have to keep the stable in sight all night and follow the man with the gramophone when he set out on his travels in the morning.

It was a queer sort of vigil, with intervals of something like unconsciousness in between; but it was finished at length, and then slowly and patiently Fanshaw crept along the mean streets in the wake of the gramophone, very much like a cab-runner in the track of a laden taxi. And so the man with the gramophone and the worn-out, grimy individual behind him struck Blackfriars bridge, and then Fanshaw hurried along the Embankment, and just after ten o'clock in the morning dragged himself wearily upstairs and entered his own flat.

He threw off his grimy clothing and luxuriated in a hot bath. Then for the first time for years he shaved and dressed himself without the aid of his man, and sat down to breakfast the like of which he had never eaten before. Then he lounged in a big armchair with a cigarette and the morning paper, which he read without grasping the meaning of a single line. He was still in a sort of dream when the door was flung open and Crake came in.

"Hello," he said; "so you've got back. I suppose that means that I have lost my bet?"

"Well, you have and you haven't," Fanshaw smiled. "In a way you were quite right, Joe. I wandered about from the time you left me in the car till two o'clock this morning, and for the life of me I couldn't gain a yard. I had all sorts of extraordinary adven-

tures, and I might have been there still but for one man, and I will bet you another fifty pounds you can't guess who it was."

"I'll buy it," Joe smiled.

"Well, it was the man with the gramophone. The chap who was outside here only yesterday afternoon. He was down at the docks playing a tune to some drunken sailors, and I spotted that Caruso record at once. So I hung about all night and followed him up West this morning. I've lost my bet, Joe, though I never asked a question and I took no mean advantages. I've

won all right in the strict letter of the bet; but I've lost in the spirit."

"Well, it's a bit of an experience, old chap," Crake said. "And somehow I think you are going to benefit by it. And, look here, it seems to me that both of us have lost our bet, and both of us have won. Now suppose that we put down fifty pounds each and send the whole thing as a thank-offering to St. Dunstan's?"

"Capital," Fanshaw cried. "That's a real brain wave, Joe, and I never laid out fifty pounds to so great an advantage."

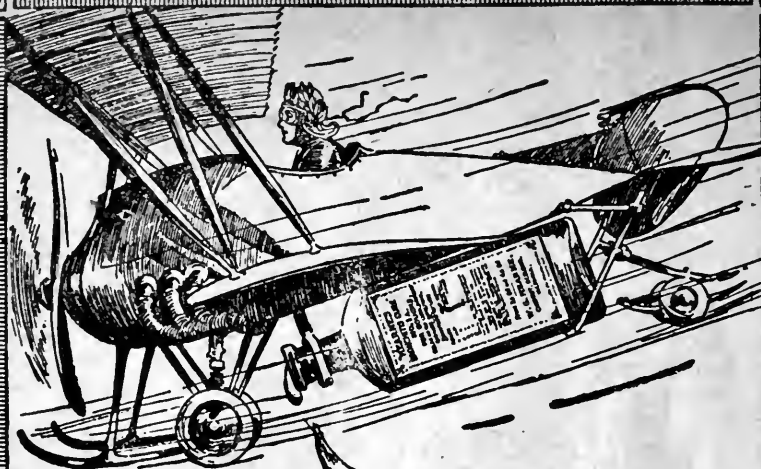
ESPERANTO NOTES.

For many years Esperanto in Italy made only small progress, a matter for surprise in a country of such great international importance, and the resort of so many foreign visitors. With the war, however, interest in the international language has been greatly increased, and Esperanto journals contain accounts of successful propaganda in various large centres. Italy has in fact "discovered" Esperanto. The city authorities of Milan are conducting classes of Esperanto, including a class for teachers. In Turin, as a result of a petition by the students, similar classes are in operation. In Genoa, the Volta commercial school has introduced Esperanto into its programme; the local newspapers, which include some of the most important in Italy, are all favourable to Esperanto, and frequently devote space to its advocacy. In other cities also, notable progress is being made. It is stated that 22 members of the present Italian Parliament have given their support to the Esperanto movement.

Speaking of the Esperanto translation of the Bible, the opinion of a former examiner in Hebrew in an English University, the Rev. J. Beveridge, is worth quoting. The translation, he says, has been conspicuously well done. "For years I have studied a chapter of the Esperanto Bible every day, and

I am daily more thankful that Esperanto came under my notice when it did. I believe that I have never yet risen from reading a chapter without getting clearness regarding some phrase or word, or shade of meaning, which formerly was veiled to me. I am confident that the careful reading of the Esperanto text has been more valuable to me than the perusal of man commentaries. . . . I have seen no English or other translation that makes me feel so certain that I have got, at the true meaning of the inspired author, as the Esperanto does. Zamenhof's Esperanto translation is the briefest and best commentary on the Old Testament which has ever come into my hands." Another great admirer of the Esperanto Bible, in this case more especially of the New Testament, is the Rev. Professor John E. M'Fayden, of the United Free Church College, Glasgow.

Readers of STEAD'S interested in Esperanto should communicate with the nearest Esperanto centre, at any of these addresses:—Box 731, Elizabeth Street P.O., Melbourne; "Edna," Clissold Parade, Campsie, Sydney; "Bonvenu," O'Mara Street, Lutwyche, Brisbane; 60 Roebuck Street, Thebarton, S.A.; 42 Temple Street, Victoria Park, Perth; 35 Risdon Road, New Town, Hobart; and 84 Tory Street, Wellington, N.Z.



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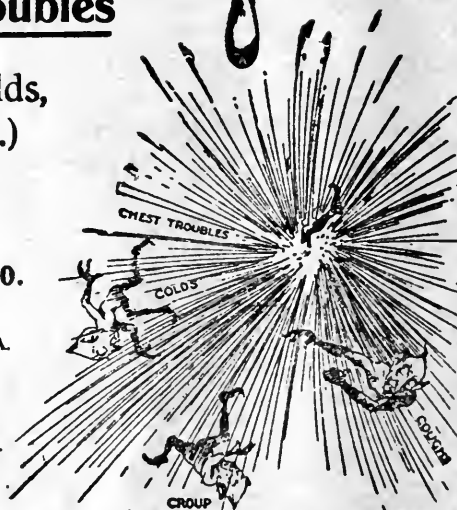
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FINANCIAL NOTES.

THE MARKET.

The market has been dull during the past fortnight, because the same factors have continued to operate. The principal of these has been the consideration given to the Second Peace Loan. Buying of the cheaper war loan stocks by people desirous of converting has gone on. The advantage of doing this has not been so generally understood as should have been the case. Victorian Government stocks have been dull, but some of the longer dated Board of Works 4 per cents have had attention. Banking securities generally have kept quiet. This is the cause with the bulk of securities, the reason being that there is an undercurrent of restriction, owing to the fact that financial institutions are being called upon to finance large engagements. They have to consider the handling of the wool clip, through business in that direction having gone back to a pre-war footing. The mining market is dull, except so far as Broken Hill Proprietary shares are concerned. The demand for this stock arises from the fact that rumours are again current that an issue of shares is impending. The labour position at Broken Hill is not at all clear, even though the men should agree to come to terms with the mines, because no one knows how costs will work out. As was hinted in these columns recently, Goldsbrough Mort's have brought out a new issue of shares.

BANK RESERVES.

There has been an upset in the banking dove-cote. This has occurred through the introduction into a bill to provide for the Commonwealth Bank taking over the Federal note issue, of a clause that the private banks shall hold a reserve of 20 per cent. of Federal notes against current deposit accounts, and 10 per cent. against fixed deposit accounts. Those responsible for this scheme are not disclosed, but it looks

as if what is sought to be done is to add glory to the Commonwealth Bank. That institution, now that the war is over, has to fall back into the ranks of ordinary trading institutions. For that reason, it can hardly look to earn the large profits that were made in exchange and other business while the war was on. As a matter of broad principle, the objection of the banks that they should have had notice of such a scheme as is now proposed, is well founded. Canada and the United States, in their short national existence, have done a good deal of experimenting in currency and banking, but the efforts of politicians all through, when lacking the advice and support of private banking experience, has mostly ended in financial upset. The community has always suffered. For that reason, it seems extraordinary that the teachings of history should have been ignored. To ask the banks to keep a certain reserve, regardless of their holdings of coin, really means a forced loan. The fact not stated is that the size of deposits in no way indicates financial stability. As a rule, advances by a bank generally indicate an increase in deposits with some other institution. That being so, it has become a fundamental in serious finance to keep an eye on the increase in deposits with the object of seeing how the total has been built up. Here in Australia, large deposits have arisen through lavish Government expenditure over the war. That being so, everyone knows that there must be a day of reckoning. For that reason, the action of the Commonwealth Treasurer is ill-advised in time, even if it rested upon a good economic base. The note issue will be increased, so that inflation instead of deflation will take place. The business of the ordinary banks in financing the wool clip and the wheat clip under the conditions that will prevail in the immediate future, will be rendered more difficult. Nothing can be gained by the change, and a great deal may be lost.

SECOND PEACE LOAN.

The fact that £21,000,000 has been subscribed out of a total of £25,000,000 asked by the Commonwealth Government for the purposes of the Second Peace Loan is a splendid response to the call made on people to aid the repatriation movement. It will not be difficult to get the additional £4,000,000 required to make up the sum demanded. So far as the loan goes, then, it can be said that it is a success, and the Government has every reason to be gratified at the subscription. The question now has to be put: What has the Government done to deserve the confidence of the contributors? Have members of the Cabinet lifted a little finger to show that they have been earnestly backing up the loan? Of course, they have spent money in blocking up the view of the citizens to their town-hall, or post office clocks; they have let menageries go through the country as appeals to the farmers, and have exploited the picture show world for loan campaign purposes, but the desire to economise has not been evident. It is the lack of effort in this direction that has occasioned so much grumbling over the whole business, and so, if the result of the loan has not been a full subscription, returned soldiers must not blame the people, but must realise that taxpayers are disgruntled at the spendthrift policy of the Federal Government. Under the circumstances the fact that £21,000,000 could be counted up at the date fixed by the prospectus for receiving applications, is a financial feat that only Australians could be capable of. The expenditure of the money raised through the loan will help to carry the country on an even keel for a while, but the activity promoted by such expenditure must not be accepted as gauging that the Australian financial corner has been turned. It is only when the rake's pockets are empty that reform is likely.

COMMERCIAL BANKING CO. OF SYDNEY.

This Sydney bank ranks among the five leading financial institutions of the

Commonwealth, although unlike the chief among the private concerns—the Bank of New South Wales—it has never extended its business to beyond the home State and Queensland. Its deposits at the end of the last term stood at over £30,000,000, with liquid assets amounting to £17,978,451, as compared with the liabilities to the public amounting to roughly, £32,000,000. Advances stand at £18,141,000. The way profits have flowed to the company since the war is indicated by the following table. It will be noted, in connection with it, that the figures are for half-yearly terms, up to June, 1919, leaving the last total to represent the result of a year's operations:—

	Capital Paid.	Net Profits.	Reserves.
June.	£	£	£
1914 . . .	2,000,000	149,383	1,500,000
1918 . . .	2,000,000	146,989	2,000,000
1919 . . .	2,382,000	152,697	2,080,000
Year.			
1920 . . .	2,500,000	346,602	2,120,000

The profits for the past year are some £47,000 in excess of those for the preceding year. This is not to be wondered at when the course of the business of the bank is followed. First of all, it divides with the Bank of New South Wales the chief accounts of the State. These must be a source of profit, and, in addition, the wheat and the war loan business have been of the gilt edge type. Further, the bank has in London very large sums of money, which it has been unable to use to its great advantage. Its bill business has been substantial, and though it has had to give assistance to the pastoralist, and the farmer during the drought, still the risk has been minimised by the high prices obtainable for wool and stock. All these factors constitute testimony to the recuperative ability of this country. Anyway, the points affecting the Commercial Bank of Sydney, so far as the investor goes, are—its progress is undoubted—its liquid assets are kept in proper perspective to liabilities with the public, and the reserve has been so built up in comparison to the issued capital, that it seems inevitable there must be another issue before very long.

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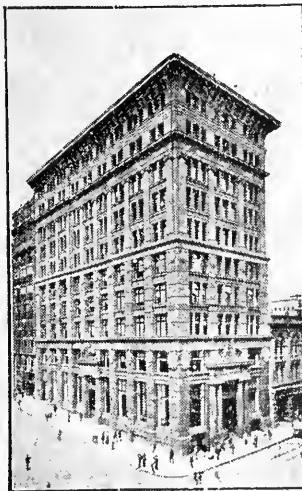
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THE SKIPPER'S SECRET.

(Continued from page 387.)

something akin to a smile puckered his weather-beaten face.

"Comin' or not?" repeated the mate, impatiently. "We're all married men in this boat, an' we can't risk stayin' 'ere much longer. Comin'?"

The small boat was now towing astern, her painter slackening and drawing taut as she rose and fell to the waves.

"If ye don't come quick, we'll go without ye; this is the last time o' askin', as the parson says——."

"Fat lot ye know about parsons," jeered the skipper. "And now I'm goin' to give ye *your* last chance. Are ye comin' back to yer duty, Joe Grubbin, or are ye not?"

"No!" yelled the mate, defiantly. "We're all mar——."

"Then go, ye scum!" yelled the skipper, and taking out his jack-knife he cut the painter. "Ye're like Paddy's mother, Joe Grubbins—ye're no man at all," and, shaking his fist at the rapidly disappearing boat, he turned his back on it, and put all his attention to the management of the *Morning Star*.

Daylight faded slowly, and as the night came down, a fog, deep, dark, and impenetrable, settled on the water, blotting out everything from sight.

Towards midnight, the pangs of hunger became unbearable, and, deeply cursing Joe Grubbins and all his tribe, the skipper lashed the wheel, and made his way to the little box of a cabin, where, on the stove, he quickly brewed himself a cup of strong coffee; then, putting some biscuits in his pockets, made his way to the deck again.

Towards morning the fog lifted, and, with the first glimmering of light over the eastern horizon, the skipper took his glasses, and carefully searched the waste of waters.

His scrutiny revealed nothing, he returned the glasses to their place on the skylight, shifted the helm to catch a fresh draught of wind, and chuckled softly to himself.

"Serves them jolly well right," he muttered. "Swabs! that's the name for

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'em," and, stamping his feet to stimulate circulation, he spat viciously over the side.

And then the queer little smile puckered his face once more. "Lor', it's great!" he chuckled, then, lashing the wheel once more, he left the deck for another cup of coffee, and to replenish his pockets with biscuits.

The breeze continued light and variable, and it was late in the afternoon before the *Morning Star* made Slow-port, the skipper dropping anchor in the river.

The old stone quay was plainly visible; but, with the exception of an old boatman seated on a bollard and meditatively smoking, not a soul was in sight.

Going to the side, the skipper gave a hail that sent the seagulls—idly floating on the water—screaming wildly in a flurry of affright.

"Fast asleep!" he muttered fiercely, sending another hail across the water, and was at last rewarded by seeing the bent old boatman descending the flight of sea-worn steps, slowly and laboriously get into a small boat, cast off, and gently push into the stream.

"Going to be all day about it?" shouted the skipper, impatiently; then, as the boat grated alongside, added, witheringly: "Don't believe he's awake yet!"

Taking his seat in the boat he relapsed into silence, and watched the old boatman's efforts to make headway against the tide, with a contempt too deep for words.

"Seen any shipwrecked mariners?" he asked abruptly, when he stood on the quay. "Any boat-load o' sea-scared swabs put in lately?"

The old boatman finished mooring his boat with exasperating slowness, bit the shilling the skipper had given him for his fare, then scratched his head thoughtfully.

"Sea-swabs?" he muttered. "No—nobody 'cept yerself, captain."

The skipper's lips tightened, and he glanced keenly at the old man; but detecting no sign of intentional insult on



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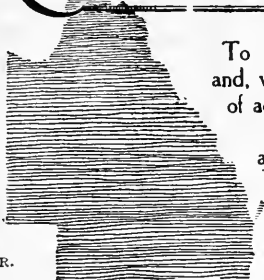
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the withered old face, he grunted noisily, and turned his steps toward the Blue Peter, in the bar-parlour of which he was soon exacting what comfort he could from the depths of a pot of mild and bitter.

"Glad to see ye back, captin," welcomed the landlord, poking his rubicund and somewhat pimply face in at the door. "Had a good passage down this trip?" he inquired, giving the mahogany table a vigorous though wholly unnecessary polishing, incidentally upsetting what was left in the skipper's pot in the operation!

"Clumsy brute," yelled the skipper, springing hastily to his feet, but not in time, however, to avoid the lapful of mild and bitter that streamed from the table.

"Clumsy brute!" he reiterated, "see what ye've done! Spoilt my best goashore trousers. Give me over that cloth o' yours till I rub myself down; an' see here—time I'm doin' it just fill up that pot again—full d'ye hear?" adding, "at your expense, savvy!" He proceeded with the operation of "rubbing himself down," whilst the landlord, picking up the empty tankard, hastily retreated.

"'Ere ye are, captin," he cried on returning, "and with my——" he hesitated to find a suitable word—"my 'umblest apologies," and he set a large tumbler of steaming rum punch before his guest.

The skipper sniffed appreciatively, the fierceness of his face relaxed, and, licking his lips in lively anticipation of the coming treat, reached over and conveyed the steaming stimulant to his lips.

"Accepted, my good man," he replied magnanimously; "accidents will happen, ye know, an' so we'll say no more about it. Here's a full house to ye, landlord," and, putting the glass to his lips he drank deeply. "Ha! that's what I call a man's drink, that is," he said, smacking his lips, "and a man's none the worse of it, 'specially when he's been up all night, and all the day before, for the matter of that."

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AT CHEMIST'S

that's if I may put the question," he added, hastily, as he saw the skipper's brows contract.

"Where was the mate?" roared the skipper, thumping the table so heavily that the landlord, fearing another catastrophe, reached over and steadied the skipper's tumbler. "Mate!" he repeated. "Swab, ye mean. The dirty dog deserted me on the high seas, and took all hands along o' him, that's what he did."

"Deserted ye, captin? and the crew too? Lor' that beats anything I ever 'eard tell of. 'Ave another glass o' rum," and, taking the empty tumbler, he shouted for, "two rum 'ots, and quick about it, too!"

Under the seductive influence of the fourth tumbler the skipper grew confidential, and before he had, as he expressed it, "stowed away" another couple, the landlord was in possession of all the happenings on board the *Morning Star* from the day she left the Thames, till she dropped anchor.

"Didn't I diddle 'em? Submarine! Fancy Joe Grubbings taking the top-mast o' the *Martha Harris*, sunk a year ago, for a periscope! 'Nuf to make a cat laugh to see them beggars pullin' that thirty nile—an' they ain't in yet!" and the thought so tickled him that he missed his chair, and sat down heavily on the hearthrug instead.

"Steady, captin, steady!" ejaculated the landlord. "Up ye come, sonny." But, unfortunately, just as he put all his strength into one mighty pull, the skipper let go his hold, and the landlord went down, eighteen stone of him, with a crash that made the customers in the outer bar drop their glasses and make for the door, under the impression that the Zepps had found Slowport at last.

Of his journey down to the quay, or of his subsequent trip in the small boat to the *Morning Star*, the skipper had not the slightest recollection.

Of two things he became conscious when he awoke. One was a splitting headache, accompanied by a thirst that

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consumed him like a furnace; the other was that the vessel was at sea.

Putting his head out of his bunk in order to reach the water-jug, his eyes encountered the grim, set face of the mate. He was standing by the cabin table toying with a revolver which the skipper had no difficulty in recognising as his own.

"Nice mess ye've made o' things, an' no mistake," said the mate, turning the pistol over in his hand and minutely examining the muzzle.

"What d'ye mean?" demanded the skipper. "An' what d'ye mean comin' aboard my ship after deserting me?" he added, banging the jug down noisily and glaring savagely at the mate.

"Well, desertion ain't so bad as murder—leastways, it ain't a hangin' matter, and that's what murder is," retorted the mate, "specially when it happens to be an officer of the law in the execution of his duty," and he nodded significantly at the bewildered skipper.

"Murder, d'ye say? Who's been a-murderin'? Ye don't mean to stand there and tell me——," and here he put his hand to his aching head as he

vainly tried to recollect what had happened after he left the Blue Peter.

"That's exactly what I do mean," answered the mate. "An' ye can thank yer lucky stars I was aboard to take the weapon from ye, or ye'd have shot"—and he pointed the pistol at the skipper's head—"goodness knows who!"

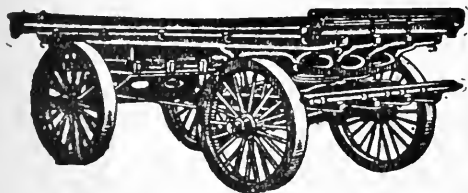
"'Ere, put that thing down! It might go off!"

"Like what it did last night?" retorted the mate, putting the weapon away carefully in his pocket.

"But surely there's some mistake, Joe?" groaned the tortured man, now thoroughly convinced of the seriousness of his position.

The mate shook his head. "I wish there was, captin: but I've always warned ye about carrying the thing about with ye, and ye such a fire-eater. See how ye stood up to that submarine, all yerself! But there, it's done now, and can't be helped," he added, resignedly, making as if to leave the cabin.

"Stop—stop a minute, Joe," pleaded the skipper, "Sit down, an' tell us all



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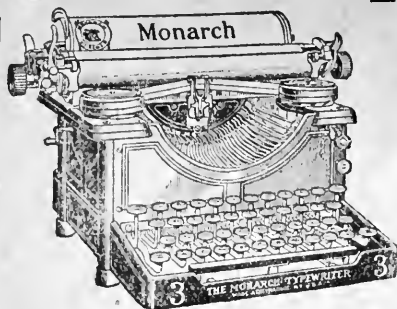
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about it," and he gulped down another quart of water.

For a long time the two men sat discussing the situation.

"And ye're certain nobody knows about it, Joe, but yourself?" queried the skipper, nervously tapping the table with his fingers.

"Certain as I am that I ain't had no breakfast yet," asserted the mate, "and I reckon five pounds cheap for sayin' nothin' about it," and he placed the five Treasury notes in his trousers pocket. "But, see 'ere, what about this charge o' desertin' the ship you has against me?"

"Desertion, Joe? Lor' bless ye, there'll be no more about that now," and he laughed, in spite of himself. "Ye rowed that there thirty mile for nothin', Joe. There weren't no submarine at all!"

"I know," retorted the mate, "heard all about that in the Blue Peter last night; but"—and he rose to leave the cabin—"ye ain't got *all* the laugh."

"What d'ye mean?"

"Oh, there wasn't no submarine, and there wasn't no murder, neither," replied the mate, as he gently closed the cabin door and left the skipper to his thoughts.

Some idea of the increased cost of living and travelling in Europe, may be obtained from the advertisements of tourists agencies. Before the war a set tour from England, with five days in Lucerne, cost only five guineas. A similar holiday this year costs about fifteen guineas, a sum which does not include the vise charges on passports which altogether come to about 30s.

At the recent meeting of the African Society, in London, methods for reviving the trade in ostrich feathers were discussed. It was stated that in 1913 the total output of ostrich feathers in South Africa weighed 1,000,000 lbs., and that the value was £3,000,000 sterling. During the war, the industry was brought to such a pass that farmers have been known to exchange an ostrich for two fowls.

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Any delicate coloured article washed in bran water will come out like new. To make the bran water, put two cups of stable bran in a thin muslin bag and allow for the swelling of the bran in water. Put this in five quarts of water and simmer on the back of the stove until the water is quite thick. Remove the bran and wash the article. Use no soap, rinse, and iron when almost dry.

The new blouses have several distinguishing features. For one thing the sweater and the jumper have joined forces, and have become a blouse which is worn outside the skirt instead of being tucked in. Embroidery, too, has never been so much used, and embroidery of a particular kind. The vest, also, is becoming a very marked feature of the overblouse.

All the part of the overblouse is as copiously embroidered as possible. The collar takes the line from the sweater roll-collar and is also embroidered. Sleeves are elbow-length or three-quarter length. The great advantage of these new blouses is that they can so tone in with an odd skirt as to make of the whole a complete dress.

Many summer coats and skirts are being made in sponge cloth in all the sand, mole, grey and jade shades. These are less cool than linen, but they crumple very much less easily, an advantage that increases as the season goes on.

There is everywhere a tendency to width round the bottom of the coats, and this contrasts with the still narrow skirt, the slimmess of which is too pretty to be banished at once.

Every woman should study the art of putting on a hat, for ignorance of this art is one of the chief reasons for an unattractive appearance. Over and over again one sees women—nicely dressed women—wearing their hats on the back of the head, instead of, as the designers intended, pulling them well on to the head, so as to shade the eyes.

If you are skilful at elaborate plaiting you may make yourself the most alluring of headgear by cutting out from thickish cloth long strips of about an eighth of an inch in width, and firmly plaiting these together, till sufficient is achieved to cover a beret. Strips of putty, purple, jade, lemon yellow, and delphinium blue combine to make the most charming whole, but you may, if you like, confine yourself to a couple of tones, orange and grey, for instance.

Tammies of all descriptions are now ubiquitous, but how different the same simple beret can look on two different women. On one it looks ordinary, though it may be quite an expensive model. On the other, who has the knack of dressing, it at once assumes a distinguished air. Just a little touch with skilful fingers to give it a becoming tilt, a little pulling this way or that—nothing more, but what a difference it makes to the look of the tammie!

Many women who confess they "love dress" fail to do justice to the expen-

sive clothes they buy. A little carelessness or want of taste is sometimes responsible, or again, an insufficient use of mirrors and inadequate study of one's own face and figure. A woman with a long face will wear drop earrings which, dangling down the side of her face, serve to accentuate its lack of roundness, instead of enhancing the beauty of her features. The woman with a retrousse nose will wear a hat with an upturned brim—because it may be fashionable—or with some flying feather that gives one the idea she has tried to help her nose on its upward path!

Before washing pleated lace collars and cuffs, lengthen the stitch on the sewing machine, loosen the upper tension, and stitch the pleating close to the hem. After laundering, the thread comes out very easily, and leaves the pleats looking like new.

To tie a pudding cloth on neatly and tautly is not an easy matter, and many people make a very poor job of it. To overcome this difficulty, make some round cloths to slip over the top of the basin, like a cap, and put a draw string round the edge, so that the cloth can be drawn up, and fit the basin tightly. In this way endless trouble can be saved, to say nothing of string. Always hold the ends of the draw string in getting the pudding out of the pot, and thus overcome yet another difficulty—that of getting the pudding out easily and safely.

One of the best antidotes for the peculiar "jumpy" form of eye strain which is caused by looking at moving pictures, flickering electric light signs, and suchlike, is to concentrate your gaze for the space of at least 30 seconds upon something which is quite stationary. To turn the eyes from a flickering electric sign to a still, grey stone building, will produce a wonderfully restful effect.

If you wish to cool anything very quickly, take a vessel of cold water, and squeeze the blue bag into it, until it becomes quite a dark blue colour. Then add a handful of salt, and into this water place your jug of lemonade or

mould of jelly. Try cooling one mould in plain water only, and you will soon see the difference.

To prevent a fruit or meat pie slipping about while being served, place a piece of folded paper between the dish containing the pie, and the one on which it is placed for sending to table. This will prevent many tablecloths being soiled through spilled juice or gravy.

To make Honey Fudge take three-quarters cup honey, one teaspoon vanilla, one cup cream, one square chocolate, and half cup milk. Boil honey and one-half cup milk, with grated chocolate, till it forms a soft ball in ice water. Add one-half cup cream, and boil again to soft ball. Add remaining one-half cup cream, and boil to soft ball. Add vanilla, and pour in oiled pan. When cool form into balls, and roll in chopped nuts or grated coconut.

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tually making simple garments. There are many splendid illustrations, showing just exactly how to do everything that could possibly cause anyone difficulty.

Gradually I learned how to plan and completely make blouses, skirts, costumes and underclothing for myself and the children, copy dresses I saw in the shops and magazines, and still add the little touches that give clothes distinctiveness.

Besides that I learned how to remodel clothing from previous seasons into stylish new garments, and this helped wonderfully. As a family we have never dressed so well—and I have saved nearly £20 since I started to learn. My husband is just as delighted as I am, and my neighbours wonder at my success. But all the credit is due to the easy Associated System. What I have done, any woman, anywhere, can do; in fact, nearly 11,000 women and girls have already taken up the Associated System of Dress-making or Millinery; some have accepted good positions, whilst others have started their own businesses.

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